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ABSTRACT

The 11 papers presented in these proceedings focus on the general theme, "Factors Other Than Teaching That Influence Reading Achievement." The following topics are covered: (1) the relationship between culture and reading achievement, (2) the influence of language on reading, (3) levels of cultural knowledge and self-esteem of intermediate grade participants in a Philippine heritage curriculum, (4) effects of administrative leadership on reading achievement, (5) proximodistal direction in the selection of reading materials, (6) survival reading skills, (7) the relationship between intelligence and reading achievement, (8) aspects of self-concept as related to the reading process, (9) parents do make a difference, (10) the use and effectiveness of computers in reading instruction, and (11) identification of a dyslexic, with some contributing factors. (HOD)

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIFTH ANNUAL SYMPOSIUM ON READING EDUCATION

Convened and edited by
Charleen D. Peryon

Co-sponsored by
International Reading Association
Guam Council

and

University of Guam
College of Education
Mangilao, Guam USA 96913
January 5, 1985

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We acknowledge the efforts of our graduate students and colleagues who have presented papers for this Symposium.

Acknowledgment with gratitude is extended to the contributions made by the panels of responders, whose extensive work in the fields of reading, psychology and research has added the necessary "real world" dimension to the discussion following each set of papers.

Special acknowledgment is extended to the Guam Council of the International Reading Association, who co-sponsored this event at the Runway West Banquet Hall at the Guam International Airport.

The Reading Department is also very grateful to President Jose Q. Cruz, Academic Vice President Roy Tsuda and Dean Michael Caldwell for their continuing support and encouragement of this annual event.

Special acknowledgment is extended to Ms. Bertha Duenas and her staff for all the correspondence, typing, program preparation, duplication and dissemination of this manuscript.

DESCRIPTION

The Reading Education Department of the University of Guam, under the direction of Dr. Charleen Peryon, held its Fifth Annual Symposium on Reading on January 5, 1985 in the Runway West Banquet Hall of the Guam International Airport. The event was co-sponsored by the Guam Council of the International Reading Association. Approximately 100 persons attended.

The purpose of the Annual Symposium is to recognize and encourage scholarly activities of graduate students in the department and to promote continuing dialogue among the disciplines that interface with the teaching of reading. This year the theme of the symposium was "Factors Other Than Teaching That Influence Reading Achievement."

Dr. Peryon opened the event with brief remarks on the state of the art viewed from the perspectives of these factors, such as parental practices, social and economic issues, the influence of intelligence and motivation, the role of the principal and others.

After each group of papers was read, a panel of responders reacted by asking questions, presenting different views, and by adding additional information from experiences as practitioners in the field. The purpose of the discussions with responders was to augment ideas and reports culled from the literature by the presenters and to add interest to the event. No debates were intended.

PROGRAM

FIFTH ANNUAL SYMPOSIUM ON READING EDUCATION

jointly sponsored by

University of Guam, College of Education

and

Guam Council, International Reading Association

Runway West, Banquet Room

Guam International Airport

Saturday, January 5, 1985

PROGRAM

8:00 a.m.	Informal meeting with Presenters Coffee and Pastries
9:00 a.m.	Welcome - Eleanor Walters, IRA President Charleen Peryon, UOG, Reading Chair
9:05 a.m.	Remarks, Michael Caldwell, Dean, COE
	"The Relationship Between Culture & Reading Achievement" by Alvios William, Teacher, Truk Island
	"The Use and Effectiveness of Computers in Reading Instruction" by Marta Martratt, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"The Influence of Language on Reading" by Barbara Benavente, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"Levels of Cultural Knowledge and Self-Esteem of Intermediate Grade Participants in a Philippine Heritage Curriculum" by Dr. Etta Miller, Assistant Professor, UOG
	"Kosraen Elite Formation Through Structural Acculturation at UOG" by Daniel S. McCauley, Assistant Professor, UOG
	"Reading in Social Studies Materials" by Bertha Leon Guerrero, Teacher, Guam DOE
10:05 a.m.	Comments of Responders
10:30 a.m.	"Effects of Administrative Leadership on Reading Achievement" by Cecilia G. Cruz, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"Proximodistal Direction in the Selection of Reading Materials" by Dr. George Kallingal, Associate Professor, UOG
	"Survival Reading Skills" by Karen Watabayashi, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"The Relationship Between Intelligence and Reading Achievement" by Elnetia W. Dogan, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"Aspects of Self-Concept as Related to the Reading Process" by Anne W. Rhodes, Teacher, Guam DOE
	"Parents Do Make a Difference" by Maria S. Blas, Teacher, Guam DOE
11:30 a.m.	Comments of Responders
11:55 a.m.	Closing Remarks, Charleen Peryon

RESPONDERS

Ms. Charleen Anderson, LAMP Specialist, DOE

Dr. Peggy Paler, Teacher, Carbullido Demonstration School DOE and Instructor UOG

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The Relationship Between Culture and Reading Achievement

Alvios William

A Paper presented at the Fifth Annual
Symposium of Reading
University of Guam
January 5, 1985

Running Head: Culture and Reading Achievement

Abstract

This is a literature review of eight data-based studies conducted between 1976 to 1983. The purpose of this review is to determine what researchers have found in regard to the effect of culture and society on reading. The review focuses on three major areas. The first is the influence of the family. This includes family size, birth order, socioeconomic status, educational-emotional characteristics, environment, sibling separation and crowding. The second major area is prior knowledge and background. The third is the cultural background and the double-burden second language readers encounter in reading. The educational literature is overwhelming in its indication that reading is affected by the influence of the family, prior knowledge and background and cultural background of the reader being different from that of the author.

The Effects of Culture on Reading:

A Review of Literature

Being able to read well is a valuable attribute. Reading is a necessary channel of communication with the global community. Deficiencies in reading ability among both children and adults have become of increasing concern. Educators, in their studies, have identified some specific factors which are significantly related to low achievement in reading thus contributing to capable young adults being unable to find suitable employment. These factors prevent both children and adults from reaching their learning capacities. This paper reviews the findings reported in the educational literature regarding the factors being identified as the impediments for success in reading.

Influence of the Family

The educational literature seems to show a direct relationship between family size, birth order, socio-economic status, educational-emotional characteristics and family environment upon students' achievement in reading.

The study done by Nuttal, Polit, and Hunter (1976) was to determine the effects of family size, birth order, sibling separation and crowding on the academic achievement of boys and girls. The subjects were 306 girls and 247 boys from large and small families living in four suburban Boston communities. It was found, after controlling for IQ, that small

family boys tended to have better grades than did large family boys. First-born girls had higher academic achievement than did latter born girls. Thus a sex-specific pattern of relationships between family constellation and academic achievement appeared. Sibling spacing was significantly related to achievement only for boys and lost significance when IQ was controlled.

Family socioeconomic and educational-emotional characteristics have influence on children's achievement, Forthering-ham, and Creal (1971). Subjects in the study were 971 children divided into above average, average, and below average achievers on the basis of the MAT reading and arithmetic scores using the following MAT standards: for above average, scores in both reading and arithmetic computation in the 76th to 95th percentile; for average, scores in the 25th to 75th percentile rank; and for below average, scores less than the 25th percentile. At random, thirty-five children were selected from each of these groups to constitute the three samples of study.

A set of scales was constructed by lumping the twenty-eight Family Functioning Scales into two scales. One group consists of the emotional atmosphere of the home as seen in the emotional care and training of children and in parent-child relationships. The other group consists of the adaptability of parents to cope with problems of family living.

The twenty-one Dave scales were collapsed into six educational atmosphere scales: 1) parents' knowledge of the school process and their child's program; 2) parental educa-

tional and occupational expectations for themselves; 3) parental expectations for their children; 4) opportunities for learning general skills; 5) opportunities supplied for development of children's communication skills; and 6) an overall rating of the home educational atmosphere.

Each scale consisted of nine points, 1 being inadequate, 9 being exceptionally adequate, and 5 being adequate or average. The results of the three samples combined are as follows. For reading the multiple correlation of socioeconomic variables is .53 and .68 when including socioeconomic and educational-emotional variables.

A similar analysis was done on the high achieving sample. For reading comprehension, multiple R for socioeconomic variable is .15 and .55 for socioeconomic and educational-emotional scores combined.

The average achieving sample results were as follows. For reading, the socioeconomic variable multiple R was .44 and .52 with socioeconomic and educational-emotional variables.

In the low achieving sample the results are as follows. For reading, the multiple R for socioeconomic variable is .43 and .69 for socioeconomic and educational-emotional variables.

The conclusion is that the major influence on the differences in academic achievement among children is the family. This influence appears to operate through initial level of ability on entering school and through attitudes toward education and opportunities provided for learning.

A more recent study by Tassopulos (1982) has similarly

shown that socioeconomic level was related to a set of student reading test scores, controlling for the effect of verbal intelligence. In the study children were tested for word recognition, vocabulary and reading comprehension. The overall test produced an F ratio of 12.30, significant at the .01 level, and an adjusted R square of 0.60. This pattern of finding was in accord with earlier findings from a Chicago school of family environment research.

Bachen (1983) conducted his study to determine the relationship between the print and T. V. environments in the home, children's orientation toward using print or T. V. to learn, and reading achievement. The subjects were 600 children in Northern California in the spring of 1981. Third and sixth graders were interviewed about their media habits, type of media environment supported in their homes, attitudes about media and school, and their involvement in a variety of extracurricular activities.

Results indicated that the print environment of the home is indeed a powerful influence on reading achievement for students in both grades. The findings demonstrate the value of including environmental variables toward the media as predictors of reading achievement.

Prior Knowledge, Background

Most researchers have been in agreement that having prior knowledge and background knowledge of a reading passage has positive effects on a child's reading comprehension.

Lipson (1983) conducted a study to investigate the impact of culturally specific prior knowledge on reading comprehension.

The subjects in the study were 32 fourth, fifth, and sixth-grade students of average and above average reading ability. All subjects were from middle to upper-middle class homes in the same mid-sized city.

Each subject received a packet of experimental materials containing three expository passages. The first passage was a culturally neutral passage. The second passage was a text designed to provide culturally specific stimulus to the Jewish children. The content of the third passage was expected to be more familiar to the Catholic children culturally.

In addition, the packets of materials contained a recall sheet for each passage and a page of ten probed-recall questions for each of the target passages. The probed-recall questions were incomplete sentences which asked the child to recall information explicitly stated in the text.

After the directions had been given to the children, they began to read the passages and they recorded their reading time and then went on to the next page of their packet. This page was an interpolated task to control for short term memory It required them to provide initial blend substitutions in order to complete a short story. Next, the children turned to the page requiring free recall of the story.

The directions were for the children to think back to the story they had just read and write it down just as they remem-

bered it. They were also asked to use exact words in the story and try to put the story in the same order that they read it. They were not allowed to look back to the story.

In the study, the quantity and accuracy of both explicit and inferential recall were affected by prior knowledge. Analysis of data suggests that culturally specific and generalized notions about events can also interfere with comprehension. Culturally, interference was common among all the recalls in the story.

A similar study conducted by Pearson, Hansen and Gordon (1979) shows that background knowledge has effects on young children's comprehension of explicit and implicit information. They found that young readers' comprehension of text was affected by the background knowledge they brought to the reading situation.

Pickens, and Rodriquez (1982) examined the effects of cultural background on the reading comprehension of average sixth grade readers. Three culturally diverse groups of Chicano/Hispanic--Texas, Navaho/Native American--New Mexico, and Anglo/American--Wisconsin children were asked to read a total of nine folktales. Three of the passages had a Mexican cultural overview, three an American, and three a Native American. After reading each passage, the subjects completed a 20-item probed-recall test. The mean scores on the comprehension tasks revealed that the culture-specific passages were comprehended significantly better than the non-culture-specific passages. The evidence indicates that cultural background profoundly in-

fluences how well reading texts are comprehended. The evidence further indicates that cultural background is the underlying framework which interacts with the text to produce comprehension.

The educational literature seems to be in agreement that both children and young adults' achievement in reading is affected by cultural factors. These factors include socioeconomic level, environment, educational-emotional characteristics, prior knowledge and background, family size, birth order, sibling separation and crowding. Though some of these are uncontrollable factors, educators have developed reading programs and instructional approaches to elevate reading achievement of children who are being affected by these cultural impediments. The effectiveness of these reading programs and instructional approaches are evidently seen in the outcomes of the children involved.

In conclusion, success in reading can result from what teachers do in the classroom, specifically how well they design and implement reading programs. But teachers are not the only groups responsible for student performance in school. Publishers, colleges of education, school administrators, and other persons concerned with the education of the children share this responsibility and must work together to improve educational services.

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The Use and Effectiveness of Computers in Reading Instruction

Marta L. Martratt

A Paper Presented at the Fifth Annual

Symposium of Reading

University of Guam

January 5, 1985

ABSTRACT

This review of literature in the use of computers and reading indicate that the computer is going to be the instructional tool of the future. Computers will continue to be of assistance to teachers in facilitating the instructional process. Used in conjunction with the traditional forms of instruction, the computer will change the trend of education.

THE USE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF COMPUTERS IN READING INSTRUCTION

Within the last two decades, programs for computer-based instruction have had a significant impact in American education. Today, computers are available in a variety of sophisticated shapes and sizes and are indeed a far cry from their predecessors. B. F. Skinner who employed a teaching machine to score his fill-in-the-blanks psychological instruments would have had a difficult time predicting that from such humble origins would involve the sleek and ultra-efficient computers that are now on the market. The computer's real potential, though lies in its effectiveness as an instructional tool. This review will present the variety of ways in which computers when used as an adjunct to more traditional teaching methodologies can benefit students and teachers. Studies have shown that the computers can influence motivation as well as achievement. They can be helpful for teachers in time management. There are, however, problems and concerns that need to be addressed when computers are use in the schools.

Teaching

Recent studies have clearly demonstrated that computers are capable of diagnosing, remedying, recording and preparing material in any subject where the student may be having difficulties. For this reason, computer as a teaching tool is gaining ground. In fact, according to Reagan Sturdivant (1979), there is a school district in Houston, Texas that provides computer assisted instruction services to approximately 20,000

students from grades one to twelve in reading, language arts, and mathematics. Not only is this computer instruction program the largest in the country, it is also one of the most successful. Schools in the district have been reporting meaningful reading achievement gain of 20% over a period of four years.

Kulik (1983) conducted a nationally publicized study. His findings show that computer assisted learning tend to raise student achievement especially when used to supplement regular instruction. His data was a compilation of ten independent studies of children who received computer supplemented drill and practice and whose performance reflected a gain of one to eight months over children who received traditional instruction. Interesting enough the studies also noted that computer drill and instruction reduced the time it took the students to learn the specific skills.

Balojthy (1984) study on computer simulation and reading found that even though there are not too many software materials available for computers in the area of reading and language arts, computer software materials designed to be used in the content areas can be used for reading. Many simulation activities require a fair amount of reading; as in all computers activities directions are often fairly extensive. Simulation fits well into the classroom and it does not demand a great deal of teaching time. Using the computer as a diagnostic test administrator Mason's (1983) study showed that reading clinicians are using a number of computer-based diagnostic programs. Although, only very few are available commercially. Hines and Warren (1978) have developed a computerized technique, a close test. Although it seems that teachers are using the computer more for diagnosis than testing, another

approach use in the above study was to use the computer as a tutee. This technique uses the child as the computer tutor. Based on the data that when poor readers help others, the tutors gain as much or more than those they teach. And since computers can be programmed, they are set up to be the poor readers. This approach not only helps students in reading but it can also add greatly to the child's self esteem, especially to those children who have had constant failures. The computer does not criticize.

Motivation

As with any change, the presence of computers in the classroom is eliciting some rather pointed questions from parents and educators. Besides the obvious one dealing with economics ("Can we afford to purchase the hardware and software necessary to use computers effectively in the classroom"), the public is asking a more fundamental question: Do computers help learning? Based on recent study by White (1983) this is one of the question that can be answered with a systematic research. A long term study of computer assisted instruction conducted by the Educational Testing Service found that computers do indeed assist learning. It appears that pupils who are exposed to computer instruction learned more quickly than they did in traditional classroom instruction. Further, White's study (1983) also demonstrated that computer assisted instruction is effective partly because it improved motivation and attention and it also provides a good deal of drill and practice. This emphasis on drill and practice, of course, is based on the theory that practice makes perfect.

The basis for White's study was a pilot program which was conducted in an electronic learning laboratory at a leading teaching college. Results of the experiment clearly showed that students' attention, defined as time-on-task, was significantly higher when working with the computer than when traditional classroom techniques were followed. Mason (1983), reported that children receiving remedial reading instruction exhibited an increase in attention span when exposed to computers. This study also reported that within the past ten years, more and more reading teachers are finding many uses for the computer.

For example Mason (1983) pioneered a pilot study to assess computer capability as an instrument for developing reading skills. This approach uses the computer as a conversation partner, and it involves two programs. One of these is "Eliza" and the other is "Hello". These are computer games like programs that some children seem to enjoy. And his conclusion was that children can engage in a conversation with the computer thus dedicating productive hours to meaningful reading and writing.

Another form of drill and practice is to use the computer as game actions. Children playing these games repeatedly read and comprehended the action words. The same study by Mason (1983) uses the computer as an accuracy trainer. This program focus on one of the major problems that poor readers often have in seeing small differences between words, e.g., "on" for "no", "was" for "saw", etc. The computer is programmed not to work if the set of words typed into the computer by the student has missing or reversed letters requring careful proofreading. Teachers using this approach reported dramatic improvement in spelling in addition to greater accuracy in reading words.

The computer can function in a variety of helpful ways in drill activities. In some ways the computer is superior to humans for this. The computer has infinite patience, the student can take his time and repeat the drill as many times as he wants. This factor may be most dramatic when working with special education children who need great amount of repetition. Another important factor is that the computer provides children with an immediate feedback.

Another frequently occuring question is "Doesn't electronic learning take the children away from reading?" There are educators that have expressed concern over the possibility that children will spend a lot of time in front of the computer, in which they are very interested. This they feel could result in pupils neglecting reading. Interestingly, this does not appear to be the case. In a recent study by White (1983) where he measured the time students spend reading and understanding directions, just the opposite was true. Computers do provide motivation for students to read.

Consistent with the previously mentioned studies, Dade (1983) reported that based on current trends, American education will experience a shift in the next decade from a teaching-learning mode focused almost exclusively on human instruction to a new approach that combines teacher and machine. Also it appears that the studies are indicating that the computer is changing not only how one should teach but what should be taught.

All of these studies on computer and reading have shown a great number of possibilities for the uses of the computer. They showed that computers and reading programs are going to go hand in hand in the future of our children's education and also that computers have changed the trend on education.

Most of the research points out the advantage of using computers for the teaching of reading. Nevertheless, there are few problems that need to be mentioned.

Besides the economical part already mentioned, Getman's (1983) study showed the physical damage that can occur to children that are exposed to the computer at an early age. This study pointed out some of the problems that can be developed if the child still has not mastered the physical skills needed to master the computer technology, i.e., visual-tactual skills, spatial orientation, figure-ground and visual peripheral awareness. Numerous learning skills have not yet been achieved by primary age children. The computer is not going to help them develop these skills, if these needed skills have not been acquired, then exposing a student to a computer screen will do more damage than good since it will be more demanding than any textbook or workbook.

Another problem touched by Dade's (1983) study is that of the social aspect of computer in the classroom. He said that "Students of the future will be trained by computers and educated by teachers allowing both computer and teachers to function in more efficient and cost-effective ways. But unless human interaction and interpersonal skills are emphasized, students's affective growth may be stunted by spending so much time with machines rather than people.

This review of the literature has presented a perspective on the use of computers in conjunction with more traditional forms of instruction. Highlights of various studies suggest rather conclusively that computer is the instructional tool of the future. It has been used effectively in the classroom to assist teachers. It has positively influenced motivation and achievement of pupils. However, this does not

mean that it will replace learning that comes from textbooks. Nor does it mean that teachers are going to disappear. What it means more likely is that computers will assist teachers in facilitating the instructional process, which is after all the good of the educational enterprise.

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Influence of Language on Reading: A Review

Barbara M. S. Benavente

A paper presented at the Fifth Annual
Symposium on Reading Education
University of Guam
Mangilao, Guam 96913
January 5, 1985

Abstract

This literature review focuses on language-learning and oral language and reading achievement. Three major studies are presented in oral language as it relates to beginning reading achievement. These studies tend to indicate that little relationship is evident between oral language proficiency and school readiness. The studies also indicate further research efforts needed in oral language and reading achievement.

Influence of Language on Reading: A Review

The relationship between oral language and beginning reading has for some time received the attention of many in the field of reading research and instruction (Fleming, 1968 et al.). This review will attempt to take another look at this relationship investigating three major studies conducted in oral language. It will also point out the elements of language-learning that are useful to make learning easier and more long-lasting.

Language-Learning and Reading

What are the differences and similarities between learning one's native language and learning to read? Lundsteen (1977) finds it useful to examine nine elements of language-learning and reading which can be used to answer this question. (1) Suddenness of onset. When we use or build background for reading in natural ways (as in oral language-learning), we reduce the "suddenness" of the onset of reading. (2) Anxiety. Small successes in reading help dispel anxiety. (3) Blame laid on the child for failure. Some children may have no control over what causes the difficulty in learning to read. Reading is easier if children have the same support they get in mastering oral language. (4) Appeal of rewards. Children are usually motivated to learn if the content of what they are asked to read encourages their natural ways of thinking.

(5) Surface features of oral language and written language. Oral language and thought support reading proficiency, serving as background. (6) Social interaction. Language development is supported by social interaction. Such interaction occurs when pairs of children dictate, write, and read and when children use group procedures with literature. (7) Correction of "errors". Reading is easier if the learner's language achievements, not their deficits, are in the spotlight. (8) Grasp of language concepts. Children need to share ideas of what reading is all about with someone who knows the communicative purpose of literature and exposition. (9) Amount of control and breaking apart of language. This element is considered in terms of control, fragmentation, integration, and long and short term goals.

Fleming (1968) considers the process of acquiring skill in oral language. Fleming (1968) adds, very young children learn to speak the language they hear around them and they accomplish this in a very short period of time.

Oral Language and Reading Achievement

Many educators are convinced that proficiency in oral language is essential for children to achieve their potential for success in schooling. Achievement in schools is highly dependent on the students' ability to express what they know clearly and in an accepted form, since the educational system is founded on the child being able to "display" knowledge. This "display" most often takes the form of spoken or written language. The child's oral language will often be the first

contact the teacher has upon which an opinion of the child's potential can be based (Corson, 1984).

Some professionals have hypothesized that competence in oral language is essential for satisfactory performance in reading, writing, spelling, and listening. Three studies providing data are presented here. Each deals with this hypothesis from a different approach.

Bougere (1969) tried to identify factors in oral language related to beginning reading achievement. He also presented evidence that selected language measures could add significantly to the predictive value of a standardized reading readiness test.

The specific concern of this study was the investigation of the predictive role of language competency on success in beginning reading. The subjects were 60 pupils in a South Chicago suburb attending first grade for the first time. Two types of predictors of reading achievement were examined and compared: 1) a standardized measure of reading readiness (Metropolitan Readiness Test, 1965) and 2) experimental measures of syntactic and vocabulary factors in oral language.

The school psychologist administered and scored the intelligence tests during the first two school months. Bougere (1969) administered and scored the readiness tests to all subjects. The readiness tests was double-checked by a doctoral candidate at the Reading Research Center, University of Chicago. During the first two school months, Bougere (1969) secured the language data for each subject. Individual interviews were conducted by the investigator to obtain language measures.

Interviews were conducted in a private setting in the schools. No time limit was set on the interviews, but the average time required to secure three protocols from each subject was about fifty minutes.

The Metropolitan Readiness Test (1965), which incorporates measures of visual perceptual abilities as well as measures of listening comprehension and vocabulary, was a better predictor of group performance on first-grade achievement measures than were the experimental linguistic predictors. Standardized reading readiness tests have been found to predict first-grade achievement for groups at somewhat better than a chance level (r ranges from about .3 to about .6) and intelligence tests generally show even lower relationships during the early stages of reading.

The coefficients of reliability for language measures across the three sampling situations were in a low to moderate range. It is possible that the reduced magnitude of these coefficients was at least partly caused by an increase in error variance which occurred when two measures were used jointly in deriving a ratio measure. The generally low coefficients of reliability found for syntactic and vocabulary items in the study made it desirable to combine data from all three sampling situations, in order to secure the most dependable measures available under the conditions of this investigation. One possible explanation for the low coefficients of reliability may be that language varies widely from situation to situation and is dependent upon the setting and the general level of interest in the topic. Present reliability findings have raised serious

questions about methods of language sampling previously used, and point to the need for continued research aimed specifically at determining how much language, and what types of experimental situations, will produce dependable measures of oral language and if language production varies widely from situation to situation (Bougere, 1969).

Bougere (1969) states two aspects of the implications which can be drawn from this study. The first aspect is practical in nature, having to do with possible contributions of the investigation to teacher behavior in school situations. The second aspect of the implications concerns further research efforts needed before substantial practical results can accrue from the present investigation.

Gray, et al. (1980) examined empirically the nature of oral language related to reading achievement for preschool children. Two research questions were asked to clarify the relationship: Are some specific linguistic features more closely related to academic readiness than others? Do groups rated high and groups rated low in academic readiness differ significantly on measures of oral language?

Subjects in this study were 74 five and six-year-olds enrolled in preschool programs in Texas. Two programs were private and three were federally funded. The sample was nonrandom and was chosen on the basis of the children's availability for extensive testing. Subjects' intelligence quotients ranged from 63 to 154. The mean was 106.97 and the median 103.75. Chronological age of the subjects ranged from five years to six years, eleven months. The mean was five years, eight months;

the median was five years, seven months. Children in the federal centers made up 55.4 percent of the sample; the children in private programs 44.6 percent. Boys made up 55.4 percent of the sample and girls 44.6 percent.

To examine the variables of oral language and academic readiness, three instruments were used: the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977), the Basic School Skills Inventory (Goodman and Hammill, 1975), and the Slosson Intelligence Test (Slosson, 1963). The three instruments were individually administered to all five and six-year-old preschoolers, excluding Spanish speakers, enrolled in summer sessions at the five preschool centers. To avoid fatigue, the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) and the Slosson Intelligence Test (Slosson, 1963) were administered to each child in separate sessions. The Basic School Skills Inventory (Goodman and Hammill, 1975) was completed by the teachers during the regular school day. Separate classrooms were designated for the testing environment to be familiar, comfortable, and relatively free of distractions. Examiners spent time working with the children in their classrooms to establish rapport. All examiners were briefed to assure uniformity in testing procedures and scoring. All scores of the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) and the Basic School Skills Inventory (Goodman and Hammill, 1975) were calculated by one investigator and checked for errors by another.

To explore the relationship between oral language and academic readiness, Pearson product-moment coefficients of

correlation were computed among six of the subtest scores, the total score on the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977), and the total score on the Basic School Skills Inventory (Goodman and Hammill, 1975). The coefficient of correlation between the total language score and the total readiness score was .60. All coefficients were significant at the .001 level of confidence. Coefficients between the five major subtests of the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) and the readiness subtests of Basic Information, Handwriting, Reading Readiness, and Number Readiness were statistically significant at the .001 level of confidence. The relationships between the supplemental subtest of the language test, Word Discrimination, the readiness total score, the Oral Communication subtest score, and the Reading Readiness subtest score were statistically significant at the .01 level. No significant coefficients were noted between any of the language scores and the Self Help and Classroom Behavior subtests of the Basic School Skills Inventory (Goodman and Hammill, 1975).

To explore the effectiveness of the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) in predicting readiness for school when combined with intelligence, a multiple regression analysis was performed with the readiness total score as the criterion variable. Results indicated that intelligence was a significant predictor (<.001), while the total score on the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) did not significantly predict school readiness. Intelligence was a strong predictor of readiness, while language proficiency, as measured in this study, added little to the effectiveness of

the prediction.

Another concern of this study was to find out whether groups rated high and groups rated low in academic readiness differed significantly on measures of oral language. Readiness of the individual children was determined by the total score on the Basic School Skills Inventory (Goodman and Hammill, 1975). One-way analysis of variance was performed with each subtest of the Test of Language Development (Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) as dependent measures to determine whether the means for each group were significantly different at the .05 level of confidence. The results were, in every case, significant at the specified level of <.05 and suggested that, when no other variables were considered, the subtests and the total score of the Test of Language Development(Newcomer and Hammill, 1977) does discriminate between the two readiness groups. The same series of one-way analysis was run a second time, covarying for intelligence. The covariate intelligence was statistically significant at the .001 level of confidence in each case. The results of this study strongly suggested that for preschool children, little relationship was evident between oral language proficiency and school readiness. The pervasive effects of IQ were a significant determinant of subjects' performance on the measures of oral language and of school readiness used in this research.

Gray, et al. (1980) further added that research is needed on the effects of oral language on academic achievement at all grade levels. It is generally agreed that proficiency in oral language is of prime importance in an individual's ability to

effectively interact with his environment; thus oral language is a practical and logical skill area for assessment, instruction, and programming. The possibility that proficiency in oral language may not underlie academic readiness has implications for curricular development and decision-making.

Hammill and McNutt (1980) conducted a comprehensive review of the literature research on the relationships of listening, speaking, and writing to reading. The literature was surveyed to locate studies on the relationship of reading to other language constructs. Twenty journals on psychology, reading, special education, and speech for the years 1950-78 were read article by article. Reading conference proceedings were reviewed and references listed in previously identified articles were scanned to locate additional studies. A study was included if it had at least 20 subjects at one grade level. Studies of more than one grade were included if there was an average of 15 subjects at each level and if age or grade level was statistically controlled. Studies were also included only if the researchers had used some type of correlational procedure to relate measures of reading to measures of listening, speaking, or writing. Among the procedures used for this purpose are Pearson's product-moment coefficient and Spearman's rank difference method.

The major independent variables were listening comprehension, meaningful speaking, and meaningful writing. Each of these were divided into more specific, though still hypothetical constructs. The results were presented in a table. The first column of the table reported the number of coefficients

used to determine the median value. The second column reported the number of studies from which the coefficients were drawn. The third column reported the median value for each major and specific constructs.

Hammill and McNutt's (1980) exhaustive review synthesized the results from 89 correlational studies on the relationship of various language constructs to measures of reading. The results indicated a very strong relationship between written expressive language and reading, a low relationship between oral receptive language and reading, and practically no relationship between oral expressive language and reading.

In conclusion, the relationship between oral language and beginning reading is not a simple one, but can serve as a base to plan effective reading programs. Development and training in oral language can indicate the effectiveness in developing language facility and reading readiness. However, there are some contradictions on the effects of oral language as it relates to reading achievement. As a result, the studies also indicate the need for further research.

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Levels of Cultural Knowledge and Self-Esteem of Intermediate Grade Participants in a Philippine Ethnic Heritage Curriculum

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ABSTRACT

The problem of this study was to determine if Philippine Ethnic Heritage Curriculum would increase the level of cultural knowledge and self-esteem of students in grades four through six of Guam Catholic Schools. Randomly selected control and experimental groups were compared on posttests for the independent variable of sex, grade level and ethnic groups. Seven null hypotheses were formulated to test for significant differences at the $P > .05$ level

From this study it was concluded that the Philippine Ethnic Heritage Curriculum increased the level of cultural knowledge for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys and girls, for Chamorros, Pilipinos, and Others in four of Guam's Catholic Schools. Self-esteem of girls, fifth grade students, and Chamorros and Pilipinos was also increased by participating in the curriculum.

Historical Development of Multiethnic Curriculum

Since its colonization, the North American continent has been inhabited by a diversity of people. Not only did the Native Americans represent different nations with vast cultural differences but the tides of humanity from other continents that washed ashore due to oppression in their homeland or the adventure of seeking wealth brought multitudinous diversity in culture. However, the educational system originated from the Anglo-Protestant concept that everyone should be literate and personally able to read the Bible.

Even today in the American educational system, long dominated by Anglo-conformity, students from the majority culture are being enculturated while minority students are expected to become acculturated. Usually adopting the host culture means rejecting some aspects of the culture of origin. Frequently among teenage immigrants, particularly, there is a tendency to over-acculturate. This causes tension in the home and these conflicts can become generalized to rebellion against all authority figures. On the other hand, under-acculturated students become withdrawn, isolated, and even suicidal. Many studies document the high rate of behavioral disorders among immigrants experiencing pressure to acculturate unidimensionally (Szapocznik, Kurtnes, and

Fernandez, 1980).

In 1908 Israel Zangwell produced the drama, The Melting Pot, with the theme that European immigrants other than the English would make good Americans. Rivilin (1975) said, "The melting pot presumed that national and religious differences could be absorbed and ignored color differences, even though color has been the most presistent exclusively labeling device in this country" (p. 121).

Although the "melting pot" concept seemed ideal to many, some parts of society soon were calling for a different focus because the idea conjured up visions of witches' brew and other unpleasantness.

As early as 1916 John Dewey used the term "cultural pluralism" in a speech before a meeting of the National Education Association (Krug, 1976). Horace Kallen is usually credited, however, with the development of the concept in the 1920s. Kallen maintained the the dominant culture would benefit from coexistence and constant interaction with the culture of other ethnic groups.

After World War II, Intergroup Education, led by Hilda Taba, became very popular. Their goals were to reduce racial and ethnic prejudice and misunderstanding, proceeding on the assumption that factual knowledge would develop respect and acceptance. The emphasis was to teach tolerance, but there is little evidence of efforts to preserve ethnic cultures.

Current writers frequently begin by calling attention to the demise of the "melting pot" theory. Many feel it was only a myth at best. Others welcome the passing of the melting pot, feeling that it spoke of old beer cans being recycled and coming out labeled, "made in U.S.A." Everywhere ethnicity has become an important issue. Glazer and Moynihan (1975) warned that the failure to recognize the significance of the importance of ethnicity could cause dire problems. They felt the welfare state and socialist state appeared to be especially responsive to ethnic claims. They pointed to "numerous studies of modernization around the world which have demonstrated the political importance of traditionalism in periods of rapid social change." (p. 261)

The magnitude of the challenge to the American schools caused by ethnic diversity and cultural-specific learning styles can be partially seen by a look at the number of immigrants who have come into the country. Since records of immigrants' entrance began in 1819, more than 49 million immigrants have entered the United States (U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1983). With the elimination of the national origin quota system in 1965, immigrants from formerly excluded areas have increased. Asian immigration has shown the greatest change with an increase of over 500 percent. This figure does not include Vietnamese refugees nor illegal aliens (Codianni & Tipple, 1980). Pilipinos are now the largest Asian group immigrating to the United States.

How can the society of the United States utilize this potential human resource and yet maintain cohesion as a nation? Banks (1972) stated that the school does have the potential and is the only institution within our society which can spearhead the change necessary. Societal needs have dictated multicultural education and ethnic studies, which are an attempt to provide each student with the tools to identify who he is and to feel good about himself as well as enabling students of other cultures to relate meaningfully to ethnic groups different from themselves.

Ethnic Studies and the Development of Self-Esteem

For purposes of this study, multiethnic education was viewed as an approach to curriculum which seeks to develop within both students and teachers those attitudes, skills, and abilities needed to function effectively in a variety of cultural environments. It therefore provides knowledge about a range of cultural response to issues affecting human society. The purpose of multiethnic education is not to see ethnic groups as a problem but to appreciate the contributions their members can make to the education of all.

Research indicates that mere exposure to other cultures may cause animosity rather than acceptance (Hansen & Lindsay, 1974; Verma & Bagley, 1973). This is understandable when it is realized that the concept of self determines a person's

acceptance of others. A child living in an environment of another culture may see himself as different and rejected while not understanding the reason. It is probable that Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) concept of "self-fulfilling prophecy" begins to interact between the child's behavior and his self-esteem.

Teachers can be agents for building self-esteem and therefore acceptance of others, or they can decrease it through stereotyped thinking and biases. Race and ethnicity play an early and important part in developing self-esteem as Brembeck and Hill (1973) stated: "The frustration of not understanding, of not succeeding, or not being stimulated seems to become the seed bed for self devaluation that subtly undermines a child's confidence to handle competently the challenges and the competition with others." (p. 53)

On the other side of the coin, different researchers have mentioned a correlation between low self-esteem and prejudice. Lessing and Clark (1976) showed that the level of ethnic prejudice and degree of prejudice reduction after intervention was negatively correlated with the measure of self-esteem. Bagley and Verma (1978) also reported that prejudiced people have poor self-esteem and a rather depressed, alienated view of life.

Research with junior and senior high students shows attitudes toward other cultures to be difficult to change.

Children by the age of four have racial awareness and by the teen years definite racial preferences are manifested. (Jelinek, 1977) Children appear to be most open to others unlike themselves at about ten years of age. An optimum time for including multiethnic studies in the curriculum may be during the intermediate grades. Therefore this study was conducted to measure the differences in self-esteem and cultural knowledge among fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in four of the Guam Catholic Schools who participated in the Phillipine Ethnic Heritage Curriculum and students in the same schools who did not participate. The dependent variables were measured on a cultural knowledge test (developed for this study) and the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory-Form A. (Self-Esteem Institute, 1979)

Conclusions

A Post-test design was used involving two classes of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in both the experimental and control groups with a total of 147 students in each group. Seven hypotheses were used to compare the students in the control and experimental groups on the basis of sex, grade level, and ethnic background (Chamorro, Pilipino, and Other) on the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and the test

of cultural knowledge (TCK). For this study, twenty lessons were chosen from the Philippine Ethnic Heritage Curriculum which was developed at the University of Guam through funding from an Ethnic Heritage Grant under the Direction of Dr. Michael Caldwell.

The six teachers who were randomly selected at the four schools were requested to present two of the 40 minute lessons each week for ten consecutive weeks. The six teachers of the control classrooms presented their students with the regular Language Arts/Social Studies Curriculum.

In the eleventh week the TCK and CSEI were distributed to both the experimental and control teachers with written instructions for administering the tests similar to standardized tests. After the test were collected, all subjects who had not taken both tests or who had not completed ethnograpic data were dropped from the sample. The tests were scored by the researcher.

The major question raised in this study, as to whether ethnic studies do enhance the level of knowledge as well as the level of self-esteem, can be answered in the affirmative. The T tests performed on the measure of cultural knowledge were significant for the three independent variables of sex, grade, and ethnic groups. The T tests performed on the measure of self-esteem were significant for the total group, the girls, grade five, and the Chamorro and Pilipino ethnic

groups. In general, the findings reported in this study tend to uphold the belief that ethnic studies are an effective tool for teaching children about various groups in a multiethnic setting as well as improving the self-esteem of students.

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Effects of Administrative Leadership On Reading Achievement: A Review

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Abstract

This reveiw focuses on the effects of administrative leadership on reading achievement. The five areas tc be discussed are:

(1) Principal's Knowledge in Reading
(2) Diagnostic Evaluation and Teacher Improvement
(3) Support staff of a Principal
(4) Involvement of the Principal in Reading
(5) Community Relations.

The literature of the past ten years reveals that principals play an important role in the success of a school reading program. It was found that principals who are knowledgeable of the reading process and who are actively involved in the school reading program are the most effective. Reports are very explicit in describing ways principals can be supportive.

Principal's Knowledge in Reading

The principal's attitude and knowledge about reading are more important than the actual time spent by the principal observing reading instruction. The principal who communicates a sense of trust and respect for the staff and an understanding of the elements of a balanced reading program will contribute to a positive environment for reading instructions (DeGuire, 1981). DeGuire (1981), further states that the principal's more thorough understanding of the reading process and the elements necessary for building a successful reading program was a significant factor in student achievement. When a principal has an understanding of the essentials of reading and effective reading instruction, recommendations to the teacher can be given on ways of improving instruction which will increase student's understanding of subject matter and encourage the building of lifelong reading habits (Egherman, 1981).

There is considerable agreement in the literature that principals who are effective are those who realize they do not have all of the answers to an effective reading program; but do know that an effective reading program evolves out of the ongoing process of learning. The principal who knows about the reading process, takes advantage of the training and expetise of reading personnel, and recognizes the many factors that determine reading progress can mean the difference between the success or failure of a school reading program (Rauch 1974, and Mangieri and McWilliams 1984).

Principals must encourage diagnostic evaluation and encourage teachers to improve themselves

Before new programs are instituted or changes made, an effective principal should consult with supervisory and teaching personnel, and provide for inservice training. Effective principals' encouragement and support of experimentation and innovation of teachers are recommended (Rauch, 1974).

There is considerable agreement in the literature that principals who are effective are those who provide methods in reading based upon sound theory and research for evaluating a program, students and staff. Guidance in establishing quality inservice programs for teachers is recommended in implementing an effective reading program. Successful principals must establish expectations relative to a reading program and communicate those expectations effectively to students, teachers and other staff members (Wilhite 1984, Mangieri and McWilliams 1984).

A principal has a crucial role in establishing and maintaining a quality reading program. Classroom observation of reading instruction and interaction with teachers on viable ways through which a principal can make meaningful improvements in a reading program (Corboy and Mangieri, 1984).

Nash (1981), listed four things that a secondary school principal can do to evaluate a school's reading instruction:

(1) Observe the amount of reading schoolwide.

(2) Observe the appropriateness of the reading which is going on in your school.

(3) Determine the kind of instruction which would be appropriate for your schools' needs.

(4) Determine the setting which would be appropriate for reading instruction in your school.

Principals' Support Personnel

Effective principals should establish sound financial and budgetary practices to insure funding for an instructional reading program. There is considerable agreement in the literature that effective principals all support the concept that the principal makes certain that the budget includes basic instructional materials as well as the needed supplementary texts and other aids (Alvarez 1981, Rauch 1974, DeGuire 1981, and Wilhite 1984).

Determining the best facilities which would be appropriate for reading instructional materials is another responsibility of an effective principal (Nash 1981 and Wilhite 1984).

Effective principals should frequently impress upon the teachers that reading is a top priority in classroom instruction. Listed are some ways of implementing this concept:

(1) Praise teachers, publicly and privately who have had a clear academic impact on a student or class.

(2) Identify those teachers who are having an impact on groups of low-achieving students; and make arrangements for them to help other teachers who were not successful with their own students.

(3) Summarize and dissiminate on a regular basis professional journal articles that describe how individuals or groups of teachers have worked effectively with low achieving students (Egherman 1981).

There is considerable agreement in the literature that principals who are effective are those who establish guidelines for selecting specialized reading personnel and work closely with reading personnel (Wilhite 1984, DeGuire 1981, Rauch 1974). Rauch (1974), states that roles and job descriptions of a reading specialist must be clearly defined. A booklet that provides guidance for the administrator in the selection of reading personnel and clarifies job descriptions is Roles, Responsibilities and Qualifications of Reading Specialists published by IRA in 1968 (Rauch, 1974).

The principal provides for scheduling, planning and participating in school differentiated inservice training, (Wilhite 1984, Rauch 1974 and Alvarez 1981). The principal should take advantage of the training and expertise of reading specialists; recognizes his or her limitations in the reading area. An effective principal and staff can benefit from the knowledge and experience of reading specialists. Before new programs are put into operation, the principal makes sure that the necessary inservice training is provided (Rauch, 1974).

An effective principal must have confidence in his or her colleagues and draw upon the strength and expertise represented when planning for change and evaluating program effectiveness. An administrator encourages and supports experimentation and innovation, he or she is never satisfied with the status quo, at the same time he or she does not abandon a successful program because of pubilicity given to a "new" reading method or because some school board member confuses exploratory research with a definitive study, (Alvarez 1981, Mangieri and McWilliams 1984, Rauch 1974).

Within the school the principal delegates the responsibility for the design, implementation and evaluation of the school reading program to an experienced and reliable teacher. The reading program involves the principal as a key decision maker and instructional leader while providing for the infusion of content into the reading instructional program from several directions (Oliver and Mason, 1981).

Effective principals should remind teachers that although there are floods of new materials for use in teaching reading, no one has made a breakthrough which allow all teachers to teach all children to read. The classroom teacher must select an approach which he or she endorses and understands and then supplement his or her reading program from other systems, using them as they are appropriate for the student, (Rutledge, 1975).

Alvarez (1981), goes on to state that principals should encourage teachers to try out new instructional strategies with their students. Alvarez further states teachers need

freedom and reassurance to stimulate their professional administrator in the selection of reading personnel.

Principal Involvement in Reading

There is considerable research agreement in the literature that effective principals should be actively involved in the planning, implementation and operation of the reading program. The principals' involvement in improving teaching skills will enhance efforts to create an atmosphere in which the staff will share strategies for teaching reading. Principals must have frequent communication among teachers about student needs in reading and an awareness of a school wide philosophy for teaching reading. A school's instructional success depends greatly on an effective principal, (DeGuire 1981, Wilhite 1984, Nash 1981 and Mangieri and McWilliams 1984).

Classroom observation instruction is an important function of an effective principal; so that the principal and the teacher can plan strategies for improving instruction. Principals are instructional leaders and key decision makers in an effective reading program. Consultations by the principal with supervisory and teaching personnel, is recommended before new programs are instituted or changes in the programs are made. Recommendations by the principal on improving instruction, will increase students understanding of subject matter and encourage the building of lifelong reading habits, (Corboy and Mangieri 1984, Rauch 1974, and Oliver and Mason 1981).

A study by DeGuire (1981) surveyed teachers from 10 selected schools in one large district, to determine their perception about the principals ideal role in the schools reading program. A 40-item questionnaire was organized for analysis in seven categories: (1) goal and program development, (2) program coordination and delivery, (3) supervision and evaluation, (4) staff development, (5) community relations, (6) principal knowledge (7) and principal attitude. Reading program effectiveness was measured by structuring the sample into two groups. Schools with progressively "increasing" scores in reading achievement over the past three to four years

(Group I) and schools with progressively "decreasing" scores in reading achievement over the past three to four years (Group II). All schools selected for the sample were administered by a principal whose longevity paralleled the reading test score pattern of growth or decline. Significant statistical differences were found between increasing and decreasing school teachers on their perception of the principal's actual role and their perceptions of the difference between the principal's ideal role expectations and actual role performance in the school's reading program. Schools which reading achievement declined were for the most part administered by a principal who was involved in a leadership role for the school's reading program, less aware of the actions necessary to change the school's reading program and more frustrated by limitations of time, personnel, budget, and district requirements. Schools which evidenced growth in reading achievement were noted for the following practices not reported by schools evidencing decline in reading achievement:

a) intensive diagnosis and periodic assessment of student reading strengths and weaknesses;

b) frequent communication among teachers about student needs in reading, including an awareness of a school-wide philosophy for teaching reading;

c) cooperative working arrangement among most of the staff including para-professionals;

d) teachers' positive attitude about the principals' active involvement and supportive interest in the school's reading program.

Principals' Community Relations

Principals have a responsibility to provide guidelines for establishing communication between the staff and the community. Some suggestions are, the principal's involvement in working with the community related to the school's reading program should be, to provide necessary test score information, foster frequent parent-teacher communication and inform teachers of parent concerns in reading. Although parental support is

helpful in increasing student progress in reading, it is not absolutely necessary. A meaningful and successful reading program can be provided for students from home backgrounds with minimal parental interest in academics, (Wilhite 1984 and DeGuire 1981). The principal needs the support and respect of the community as a person and as an educational leader for a more effective reading program, (Rauch, 1974). Furthermore, Mangieri and McWilliam (1984), states that successful principals are team players, they work closely with their colleagues and maintain an open and honest relationship with the district's administrative team.

Conclusion

The principal who communicates a sense of responsibility and interest in reading to his staff will emphasize a positive attitude towards reading. The principals' knowledge and involvement in reading will communicate a sense of trust and respect for the staff and an understanding of the elements of a balanced reading program will contribute to a positive environment for reading instructions.

Continued diagnosis and periodic assessment of students' reading strengths and weaknesses by teacher and principal will enhance reading effectiveness in the school. The principal must encourage their teachers to take advantage of inservice training, provide pertinent up-to-date information on reading program effectiveness and to encourage teachers to try out new instructional strategies with their students.

The principal must have an open communication with parents, colleagues and district administration in order to get the support and respect an educational leader should have.

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PROXIMODISTAL DIRECTION IN THE SELECTION OF READING MATERIALS

BY

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Reading behavior is very complex. It is complex in the sense that changes in this behavior can be effected only by manipulating a number of independent variables. These variables may be categorized into three major classifications: variables dealing with the learner, the learning situation and the learning materials The focus of this paper is the learning materials, and more specifically, the direction in the selection of these materials. The term "direction" in this context is used to signify a movement either from the learner as a pivotal point to areas remote from the self or vice versa.

In the process of development, human beings grow in a directio that goes from near to far. In the embryonic stage of development, the basic human organism develops in a proximodistal direction; tha is, the growth of the inner parts develops first and gradually move to the outer parts. The fingers and the toes, being outer parts develop the last. The various biological systems within the whole human organism seem to follow this pattern in the process of growin and developing.

It is also noteworthy that the human being follows this proximodistal direction in the various aspects of social learning. Basic socialization begins with the interactions at home and gradually extends to outer circles. Parents don't socialize their

children by taking them first to the remote corners of the word. They begin this process with those that are close to them - parents brothers and sisters and other family members. Once these interactions are quite solidly established, children are helped to interact with others outside the family.

This trend is also seen in the moral development of a child. The three major levels and the six stages of moral development as conceptualized by Kohlberg follow this pattern. The child moves from an understanding of his actions and their consequences to a deeper understanding of morality by moving into areas that are farther removed from him. In fact, the transition from one stage to another is dependent on this outward growth.

Cognitively also, many developments progress in this way. The child's understanding of space and time is worth analysis. The child understands map space and clock time, which are remote concepts, only after understanding action space and activity time, which concepts are more familiar to the child. It needs to be emphasized here that this movement from one type of understanding to another is a gradual process.

Many analogies are used to explain this basic concept. A young child who has not yet learned to climb a tree has a horizon that extends to the immediate circles stretching on a horizontal plane. But as the child learns to climb the tree, the horizon gets broader and broader, extending on a vertical viewpoint. As he climbs higher, the horizon is stretched farther and farther, going in a proximodistal direction.

Inspite of convincing data in the different areas of growth and development, we seem to have difficulty in translating this concept when it comes to selection of curricular materials in general and reading materials in particular. In our educational practices, we seem to have reversed this trend. We begin with materials whihc focus on realities that are remote and then gradually move to realities that are close. Look at the reading materials used in our classrooms at the elementary, middle, and high school as well as at the college and university level. What is the distance between the learner and the reading materials? If we could devise a method of measuring this distance, I dare say that we will find a significant distance between the two.

What is meant by distance between the reader and reading materials? Reading materials consist of words, phrases, and clauses. These are the components of language which have special meaning. The meaning is presented to the reader in the form of a setting, characters, plots, themes and so on. It is conceivable that each of these components can be measured to assess the distance between the reader and what is being read.

In our teaching of vocabulary, we generally teach the denotation meaning even before the child has had the opportunity to grasp the connotative meaning. The denotative meaning is distant; the connative meaning is within the realm of understanding. Understandin of the denotative meaning is certainly necessary for effective communication. But the point emphasized here is that the denotative

meaning is distant from the learner and that distance must be covered in a gradual sequence. We are all familiar with the T.V. commercial that asks a child to spell relief. With a big smile on his face, he spells ROLAIDS: relief for that child means rolaids and that is his connative meaning. The denotative meaning is too remote for him. The connotative meaning is close and it is his experiential meaning.

An often-heard argument for not presenting materials that are close to the learners is that such materials are not available. There is certainly much truth in this argument particularly here on Guam. However, there are ways of presenting a content which can significantly reduce the gap. Herbert Kohl, in his teaching years in New York, realized that the books provided were too distant from his learners and so decided to give up his text books. In their place, he used reading materials his students brought to class. He used these materials for basic instructional purposes in the classroom. He claims to have obtained better results than he would have gotten otherwise.

Some years ago, one of my university students who was a special education teacher told me an interesting episode about one of her students who had just received a love letter from his girlfriend. The student was apparently caught reading the letter in the classroom when the teacher was explaining the lesson. It was a three-page letter. He apparently read the letter in less than two minutes. Observing his facial expressions and emotional reactions, the teacher claims that he seems to have comprehended what he read. He was

obviously reading something that was very close to him and consequently very significant. He had a personal purpose for reading the letter and wanted to search for a special meaning in it. He knew what to look for in the letter and therefore had no difficulty in finding it.

The principle of learning that is applied here is one that is related to selective perception. Learners see what they want to see. This learner knew what to look for and he found it. In order to activate this principle, the learner has to be exposed to material that are close to him. Another principle that is at work here is the pygmalion effect. His expectations were built up to a point of arousing his motivation.

Many years ago, when I was a school teacher back in Michigan, the teachers' union decided to go on strike in response to the Board of Education's refusal to negotiate in good faith. After a week of picketing, the teachers decided to take their grivances to the legislature. All the teachers were asked to report to the legislativ hall, identifying themselves, the school they teach in and the subject matter they teach. Being an important event, a significant amount of teachers showed up. Teachers identified themselves as so and so and teaching such and such subject matter. There were some teachers who identified themselves, but did not indicate the subject matter they taught. They had labels such as "I am Mr. X and I teach students; I am Mrs. Y and I teach kids". We tend to forget that we teach students. The subject matter is just a vehicle to bring about

desired changes in the learner. The purpose of teaching is to bring about these desired changes in the learner. If these desired changes can be effected more efficiently by using one set of materials rather than another set, there is no reason to be compulsively preoccupied about teaching every item of information given in a prescribed syllabus. Perhaps, we need to focus our attention more on the goals, rather than on the means.

So, theoretically at least, there appears to be a difference in significance between learning materials that are close and those that are remote. The question that naturally flows from these conceptualizations seems to be: do students learn better when reading materials that are close to them are presented first and subsequently materials that are farther removed?

This conceptualization sounds very appealing. However in the absence of empirical support, its usefulness is limited. This piece of research was undertaken to assess this relationship. The main purpose of the study was to establish a correlationship rather than a cause - effect relationship. Two groups of students enrolled in ED 201-Human Growth and Development, were selected for purpose of testing this relationship. For the first five-week period, students in both classes were taught employing the lecture method. Students were presented a number of concepts and theories as presented in the text. Explanations were given to facilitate the process of understanding. The concepts presented were distant and consequently they needed explanations to bring these concepts home to the learner. At

the end of the five week period, students in both classes were tested by using objective test items based on the information presented in class. During the second five week period, a slight change in the instructional strategy was effected. Students were required to write short expository essays on concepts and theories presented in each chapter. These essays were presented in class by students for purpose of generating discussion. As these presentations brought out varied student viewpoints on issues related to the content, students had no difficulty in grasping the information and consequently a wider participation in discussion was obtained. Lectures, however, were still an improtant part of the instructional approach during this period. At the end of the second week period, students in both classes were again tested using the same type of test items. The results clearly indicated a significant improvement in performance in both classes. During the third five week period, lectures were reduce to a minimum. They were given only when concepts could not be fully grasped by student. Greater emphasis was placed on student presentations. All student wrote essays and presented them for purposes of generating discussions. In much of these discussions, students talked about concepts as they related to their cultural norms and practices. In this way, they were able to relate to them meaningfully. At the end of the third five-week period students were again tested, using similar tests. The performance of all students was the best during the their five-week period. The

consistency in performance in both groups across the three phases clearly establishes a clear correlational tendency.

This study has many limitations in methodology. Since research was not the main focus of these classroom experimental procedures, efforts were not made to apply all the strict controls of a true experimented research design. However, the consistency in the performance is more than sufficient to establish a positive relationship between proximity to learning materials and acquisition of learning. The closer the learning materials, the better is the performance of students.

During the first five-week period, students were basically taught concepts brought out in the text book. These concepts were somewhat remote from them. But during the second and the third five-week period, the papers the students wrote and the presentations made by them helped to bring these concepts closer to them. The words, phrases, clauses, clarifications, examples and judgments brought out in these papers made it possible for the other students to relate to the concepts better and they were able to perform better on the tests

Some years ago, school used to teach a course called literature composition. Students were taught to write and what students wrote was used for the study of literature. I had the opportunity to teach this class once and it was certainly one of my most satisfying teaching experiences at the high school level. The literary productions of students are important to them and therefore they are able to relate to them better.

Learning is a dynamic process; it cannot be limited to processing information close to us. There is need to move to areas that are remote from us. But this movement should begin with the learner and gradually move to the outer circles. As this movement begins, students should be presented with materials which touch on realities that exist at more and more distant places. This gradual movement from close to remote horizons, called proximodistal direction, has a greater probability of effecting learning in the students than the opposite direction.

Survival Reading Skills: A Review 1972 - 1983

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ABSTRACT

Survival reading skills involves the ability to comprehend and use written materials that are crucial to one's physical and economic well-being. It has been found in a recent national survey that a surprisingly large segment of the adult population has failed to master survival reading skills.

SURVIVAL READING SKILLS: A REVIEW 1972 - 1983

It has been found in recent years that many high school seniors are graduating from high school reading at an extremely low academic level, and having no comprehension of survival or real life reading skills.

Survival reading skills involves the ability to comprehend and use written materials that are crucial to one's physical and economic well-being. Physical well-being hinges, in part, upon the ability to comprehend written material on potentially hazardous household products, over the counter drugs, packaged food products, and information regarding housing opportunities, such as renting furnished or unfurnished places to live, and buying or leasing houses and apartments.

Economic well-being involves, in part, upon one's ability to handle materials on employment, insurance, taxes, and warranties.

It has also been found in a recent national survey that a surprisingly large segment of the adult population has failed to master survival reading skills. The director of the survey, Dr. N. Northcutt (1975) reports: "The gap is widening between what adults know and what is demanded of them" (pg. 87). He also says that the picture is more dismal than had previously believed (Jones, C. 1975). In another major survey, a sample of high school students with extremely high scores on a conventional standardized test was identified. When measured on survival reading, many in this highly select group were found to lack specific survival reading skills (National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1974).

Basic Real Life Skills and Survival Skills are terms that are used with great frequency. Before one can discuss these skills one must under-

stand their meaning. The terms basic/real life skills and survival reading used in this context are defined by Walch (1981):

> The ability to comprehend and use written materials that are necessary to both our physical and economic well-being. Our physical well-being depends upon our ability to comprehend written materials on legal drugs, household products, packaged food products, and housing information and opportunities. Our economic well-being depends upon our ability to handle and complete materials on taxes, insurance, warranties, and medical forms. (pg. 3)

Survival reading skills are skills, such as following directions on medicines, learning to read the warnings on cleaning products, reading about situations such as poisonings, accidents, and many banking situations. These skills are related to reading because in order to accomplish any of these tasks, a person must be able to read and understand what they are reading.

Many survival reading programs have been developed following the definition given by Walch. It was found in various studies that students needed to be taught these survival skills (Curren, 1982).

Students who are learning to read show greater gains and improvement in reading skills, when they are given tasks with a purpose, instead of just told to read a book. If the students can see why they should learn these skills, and can see that they will be using these skills later in life, they will learn better, and will be more responsive to both the teacher and the materials presented (Sullivan, 1982 and Coin, 1978).

Students who are actively engaged in learning skills that will enable them to live more effectively are determining their own curriculum and needs in the classroom (Schubert, 1983). These students are not bored wit

learning and with school, because they see a sense of purpose and reason for learning these skills (Bereiter, 1972).

Testing of real life skills is also more effective. When students are tested in these survival or basic skills they seem to build an attitude towards testing that appears to be more positive than before. The students also do better in their other subjects, because many times the basic skills they learn in reading class can be associated with content area subjects (Cohen, 1982).

Content area teachers should also focus not only on real life skills, but also on the teaching of reading. Many teachers in the various content areas do not realize that if they were to focus on the fact that some things can be used in real life, the students would be more receptive to their subjects (Fincher, 1979).

Survival and basic skills must be actively taught. According to Stein (1973), "The U. S. educational system is spawning a nation of illiterates" (pg. 35). Stein also states that one of the main reasons students are not reading as well as in the past is because the students feel there is no need for them to learn to read a textbook that is not relevant to their daily lives. The students must be taught skills that they can use once they graduate or leave high school.

High school students will respond if they can see and use these basic skills in the community. Using skills out in the community is an extension of the basic skills instruction. The basic skills taught should be relevant to the community outside of the school. If a student lives in Los Angeles, a basic skill would not be working in a coal mine. It is highly

unlikely the students would use this skill (Cordisco, 1991). It has been found that if the students can use skills learned in school in a practical way, even the poorest readers will be very receptive to both the skills and the teacher presenting the skills (Curren, 1982).

When one discusses basic skills, the terms "minimum competency" come to mind. One must realize that survival skills and minimum competency are not synonomous (Boston, 1982). Basic or survival skills, as stated before, can be used by the students to survive in the real world outside of high school. However "minimum competency" means that students are tested to see if they have learned a skill at an acceptable level. Many educators agree with the teaching and testing of survival/real life skills but disagree with minimum competency testing. These educators believe that real life, or survival skills, have a purpose in life and are very usable, while minimum competency testing sometimes breeds minimum accomplishment (Boston, 1982).

Many educators and students alike feel that it is the student's rights to be taught survival skills whether or not their school districts have explicitly recognized these skills as a part of the curriculum (Schubert, 1983).

Survival reading programs have been set up in various parts of the United States mainland. Many of these programs have been proven successful, not only as stated before by the students, but also by the Administrators and Boards of Education (Lezotte, 1982). These administrators feel that because the students are more receptive to the teachers, the teachers themselves feel better towards themselves, because they can see

the instant results when students are able to perform a skill such as filling out a job application correctly and getting a job (Cordisco, 1979).

Many programs have also been developed by utilizing the local community resources. With the cooperation of the public and private sectors, the students feel that they will be accepted once they graduate from high school and join the community. The students feel as if they are a part of the community, because they have learned skills that will indeed allow them to flow smoothly into the community. Also, by the time the students have completed these programs and learned their skills, they are more confident, more sensitive to the demands of adulthood, and more receptive to the diversity of the human experience. The students are also more knowledgeable about their options for education and careers. Perhaps more important, they feel better prepared to meet the challenge of adult responsibilities. The student also tends to look at the world more realistically. Many times students have a somewhat better view of the world outside high school, because they seem to know what to expect (Cordisco, 1979).

In conclusion, survival reading skills should not only be taught in the high schools, but these survival skills should also be taught in the elementary and middle schools. If the students in these levels see a purpose towards learning they will be more motivated to do better in high school. It has been found in recent years that not only do the high school students feel it is their right, but the younger students also feel they should be taught survival skills (Porter, 1983).

In the reports cited, it has been shown that the students are more skillful in survival reading skills than those students who are not in any

type of reading class. Because of the comprehensive nature of survival skills, the students in Survival Reading should be able to function as well, if not better, in their survival skills, than those students who are not in any survival reading course.

The trend towards minimum competency testing once again makes the need for survival reading skills even greater. Not only are the students in survival reading more capable, but their reading levels have risen considerably, anywhere from 2-4 grade reading levels (Sullivan, 1982). The students' reading levels increases, because the students realize they need these kinds of skills to get through daily living. This need is seen clearly in one of the studies on illiteracy. The Adult Performance Level Project at the University of Texas, surveyed adults nationwide and found that 20 percent could not interpret a bus schedule, understand a printed explanation of finance charges or address a letter so that it would reach it's destination.

Hopefully, with the success of survival reading courses in some high schools, other schools and districts will develop and adopt these courses as part of their curriculum, not only in the high schools, but in the elementary, middle schools and adult basic education as well.

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The Relationship Between Intelligence and Reading Achievement

Elnetia Wright Dogan

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Abstract

This review of literature will discuss the relationship between intelligence and reading achievement. Some studies have shown results that indicate that these factors are not only related but that they are dependent upon each other. Also included are studies that have results that show that intelligence and reading achievement are not related factors needed for reading success.

The Relationship Between Intelligence and Reading Achievement

Elnetia Wright Dogan

The relationship between intelligence and reading achievement depends on certain intellectual abilities. Of these abilities, this review will discuss age, stimulation, retention ability, interests, and attitudes. It will also include other factors that may contribute to the relationship between intelligence and reading. The Follow-Through Experiment (Anderson, St. Pierre, Proper, and Stebbins, 1977) and the Cooperative Reading Studies (Lohnes and Gray, 1972) are landmark studies in this area.

This review will examine those studies that have set out to show that intelligence is a major factor relating to student achievement in reading. These studies have been organized and discussed in groups that will progress from early development through the intermediate and secondary stages of learning. A final section will discuss other useful information on the intelligence level after instruction and other relating factors.

Early Development Stage

Intellectual influences such as intelligence, mental age, and IQ are important because they affect the comprehension level of reading. Grompone (1961), in her review of literature on the intellectual influences of reading, reported that it is difficult to identify these influences because it is almost impossible to

separate intelligence and culture.

Many educators think that the best age for beginning reading instruction is the mental age of between six and six and one half years. Doman (1970) disagreed with this starting age. He felt that the beginning reading age should be lowered to three years old. The younger the child is when he begins to read, the easier reading will be for him and the better he will read.

Jester (1972) studied the effects of intellectual stimulation on preschoolers. The purpose of this study was to identify factors that could be related to the child's future success in reading. The author identified three factors as being directly related to reading readiness: Language, Memory, and Perceptual-Motor Skills. A structured program of stimulation in these areas was administered to 190 children, aged 36 months, for varying periods of time. At the end of a three-year period, the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test was given to all of the participants. The results of this test was studied to compare the scores of participants who remained in the program for the full three-year period, to those who stayed in the program for one year or less. The results of this study showed that children who stayed in the program for the full three years scored higher on the Language and Memory factors than the children who remained in the program for one year or less. The Perceptual-Motor factor did not vary significantly with the amount of time spent in the program. It was found that stimulation during the third year seemed to have the greatest impact on reading

readiness. The findings indicated systematic intellectual stimulation did make a difference in the performance scores and that it has a direct association to reading readiness.

Primary Level Stage

Dykstra (1968) in his summary of the U.S.O.E. Cooperative Reading Studies, reported on the First-Grade Phase of the study. He sought answers to questions that were mainly concerned with the environment, teaching approaches, and the effectiveness of the reading program on student achievement. His results showed that intelligence is one of the most important factors of academic growth.

Rude (1975) conducted a study to determine the effects of a summer vacation period on reading achievement. The purpose of this study was to decide whether intelligence, sex, and the reading curricula were related to the retention of reading skills. In this study, 311 first grade students from the Wisconsin area were used. Half of the students were enrolled in a basal reader, the other half were enrolled in an objective-based reading program. The objective-based reading program stressed overall reading abilities and skills. The Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary A, and the Wisconsin Tests of Reading Skill Development-Word Attack, Level B, was given to all children two weeks before school closed for the summer and two weeks after school opened in the fall. The California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity was given in

the spring before school closed. Results indicated sex and type of curricula as not being related to the retention of skills. Intelligence was related to the ability to retain skills on two of the tests. The findings indicated that sex, intellectual ability, and the type of curriculum are not related to the retention of overall reading ability, specific ability, and reading skills.

Lohnes and Gray (1972) studied the scores of 3,956 students in the Second-Grade Phase of the U.S.O.E Cooperative Reading Studies. The purpose of this analysis was to determine whether general intelligence is an important factor needed for reading. Eight readiness tests and 11 Stanford Achievement Battery tests were given to all students. The eight readiness tests were given in the first weeks of first grade and five of the achievement tests were given at the end of second grade. The other six achievement tests were given at the end of the second grade. The results of this study identified intelligence as one of the most important factors relating to beginning reading. The findings indicated that about half of the intelligence factors in students are based on the hereditary environment. This hereditary environment is important in the development of intellectual potential and of beginning reading habits and interests.

Intermediate and Secondary Level

Bond and Wagner(1960) reported evidence that showed that the relationship between intelligence and reading achievement becomes

closer when subjects are tested at higher grade levels. The mental age and the reading ability becomes more closely related as the reader moves into more mature materials and as he reads for more mature purposes.

Goodstein and Kahn (1974) studied the relationship between measures of intelligence and reading achievement. He used 50 students from grades four through six for study. Data collected was the Chronological Age; WISC full scale, verbal, and performance IQ; the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Primary; and an informal criterion-referenced achievement test. The results showed that the relationship between reading and IQ were independent. The findings showed that IQ was not related to disability in academic areas.

Scharf (1973) studied 214 high school students to find the relationship between reading interest and intelligence, sex, and grade levels. IQ scores came from the results of the California Short Form Test of Mental Maturity. A questionnaire was used to gather additional information. The results of this study showed a difference between reading interest and intelligence, sex, and grade levels. Findings indicated that students with higher intelligence read more than any of the other groups.

Other Relating Factors

Some teachers feel that the higher the intellectual level of the child, the more positive his attitude toward reading will be.

Hansen (1969) studied the impact of the home environment on the reading attitudes of fourth grade students in the Wisconsin area. An attitude assessment inventory was given to 48 students. Twenty-four students had a more positive attitude toward reading than the other 24 students. The results showed that children whose parents were actively involved with their reading activies showed a more positive attitude toward reading. Providing materials and being a model reading parent did not relate to high attitudes. The findings indicated that it is not necessary for parents to be avid readers but their actions in terms of personal or status characteristics are more important. These actions included that of working with homework; encouraging; helping to select, and discussing his reading; reading to him; assisting in looking things up in the dictionaries and encyclopedias; and in setting reading goals.

Keller, Croake, and Reiseman (1973) studied students from grades three through twelve to determine the relationship between intelligence, grade level, sex, and handedness. Students were chosen through the use of a two-question survey concerning the hand used for writing and the foot used for kicking. Students who gave mixed answers were omitted from the study. Fifteen right-handed and fifteen left-handed students from grades 5th, 6th, 8th, 9th, and 12th were chosen. IQ scores were obtained from the California Test of Mental Maturity; reading scores from the Comprehension Test of Basic Skills and the Flordia 9th Grade Achievement Test.

The results of this study showed that reading achievement did not differ between sexes or handedness. There was no significant difference between IQ and reading achievement in the 8th through 12th grade students.

Stanovich, Cunningham, and Feeman (1984) studied the relationship between reading and general intelligence after decoding skills had been taught. These authors focused on this research because there was almost no previous evidence to support this fact. They set out to test the hypothesis that reading is strongly related to general intelligence once the differences in decoding skills had been accounted for. In this study, there were 56 first-grade students, 18 third-grade students, and 20 fifth-grade students as subjects. All students were given the Reading Survey Test of the Metropolitian Achievement Test that was appropriate for their grade level. This Reading Survey Test was a test of reading comprehension and did not directly test word decoding skills. The first-grade students were given a reading program with a basal series, a phonics program with a workbook, a spelling and writing program that was developed by their teacher. All groups were given the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. The Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices was given to the first and third-grade students. All students were timed to determine the speed that they could pronounce words and all students answered questions after having a paragraph read to them. First-grade students were given a listening comprehension test and an initial consonant test. The results of this study

do not support the fact that there is a strong relationship between reading ability and general intelligence after decoding skills have been taught. Decoding skills were viewed as a cause of vocabulary knowledge, which was interpreted as a predictor of reading comprehension.

The Follow-Through Experiment (Anderson, St. Pierre, Proper, and Stebbins, 1977) was a large-scale teaching program intended to extend the services of Project Head Start to the primary grades. The purpose of this study was to implement and evaluate a variety of compensatory programs for disadvantaged children. Initiated and funded by the United States Office of Education, the Follow-Through Experiment monitored the results of 352,000 first, second, and third grade students in 139 different school districts that implemented a program model. Seventeen program models were compared in this study. Some of these included Behavior Analysis, Direct Instruction, Parent and Open Education, Language Development, Tucson Early Development, and Individualized Learning. School district participation was on a voluntary basis and each district selected the program model it wanted to implement and helped to choose the comparison groups used. Both comparison groups, the Follow-Through Group, and the Non-Follow-Through Group, were given a pretest that covered word recognition, reading comprehension, and an attitude toward self and school inventory. The program models were administered to the Follow-Through Groups. The Non-Follow-Through Groups received instructions from traditional

educational programs in the same school. At the end of the period, a battery of tests were administered to all of the children. These tests included the Metropolitian Achievement Test, Wide Range Achievement Test, Raven's Colored Progressive Matrices, the Coopersmith Self-Image Inventory, and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale.

Costing more than half a million dollars and extending over a period of nine years, the Follow-Through Experiment has been evaluated by a number of agencies. Among these agencies were the Abt Associates, the Stanford Research Institute, and the United States Office of Education. Of the seventeen program models implemented, only three were found to be more effective than the traditional models of their comparison groups. These top three models were Direct Instruction, Parent Education, and Language Development. The results also determined the least effective program models to be the Tucson Early Education, Cognitive Curriculum and Open Education. To be judged effective, a program model had to surpass its local comparison group and make a difference of at least two points or more of a grade level on a standardized test by the time the students were in the third grade. A program model must also have shown to be effective in more than one location and the teaching should not have any adverse effects on the students.

Conclusion

Intelligence has been found to be an important factor that relates to the student's achievement in reading. In recent years, studies have been conducted to determine which of these intellectual abilities are needed when learning to read; age, sex, grade level, interests, attitudes, approaches to teaching reading, and skill retention ability. Of these studies, some have shown results to substantiate the theory that intelligence is related to reading achievement. (Jester, 1972; Rude, 1975; Lohnes and Gray, 1972; Hansen, 1969; and Stanovich, Cunningham, and Feeman, 1984) Other studies had results that showed that intelligence and reading are not dependent upon each other. (Crompone, 1961; Goodstein and Kahn, 1974; and Keller, Croake, and Rieseman, 1973)

More research studies on the relationship between intelligence and reading achievemen are needed to further clarify their dependence on each other.

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Aspects of Self-Concept as Related to the Reading Process

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ABSTRACT

ASPECTS OF SELF-CONCEPT AS RELATED TO THE READING PROCESS

Anne Wilcox Rhodes

Self-esteem, or self-concept, is the judgement an individual makes as to one's personal worth. While it is a personal, internal belief, its overt manifestations, i.e., attitudes, motivation and work habits, are of major concern to educators.

This review examines reports that have shown the effect of self-concept on reading achievement and its implications for teachers.

ASPECTS OF SELF-CONCEPT AS RELATED TO THE READING PROCESS

The stresses and pressures of a modern society have caused educators to re-assess the traditional approach to education. Classroom teachers are faced with children from broken homes; those whose parents are drug-dependent; or, as is newly coming-to-light, the victims of mental or physical abuse. Consequently, the teacher must devise some strategy to counter these potentially devastating factors.

As will be seen, the development of self-esteem seems to be the element that allows such children to be resilient to what could become debilitating conditions. Pines' Investigations (1984) showed that those who developed the insulation of self-esteem were able to withstand the forces assailing them.

Self-esteem is the evaluation an individual makes about one's own capability of being successful in whatever task is set before oneself. It is a personal judgement of worthiness, and is reflected in overt attitudes and behavior, thereby producing a corresponding judgement by others of that person's ability (Coopersmith, 1967).

Consequently, the need to analyze, and thereupon foster this unique quality is of prime importance for educators.

People are not born with this quality called "self" according to Mead (1934), nor is it inherited (Kagan, 1981). Instead, it is attained as children start to differentiate their personal characteristics from those of others around them (Kifer, 1975); therefore, it becomes crucial that they are assisted in developing the characteristic of self-esteem within the most positive and favorable framework.

Coopersmith, in his oft-quoted study, Antecedents of Self-Esteem (1967), purports that persons with high-esteem are happier and more effective in meeting environmental demands. Pines (1984) reiterates this in explaining the results of his fourteen-year study of 94 high-risk children. He found that although they may not necessarily have obtained academic success, they had been able to establish a feeling of self-worth through relationships or activities in school, and this self-esteem allowed them to grow into well-functioning citizens.

The quest for a definitive measure that will make an independent contribution to achievement has led to an examination of the affective domain of an individual's personality. For while reading is primarily a cognitive act, it is also influenced by such intrinsic elements as feelings, emotions and values (Mill, 1960; Kagan, 1981; Paik, 1982; Fredericks, 1982).

Greer (1972) postulates that values are formed when emotions become attached to particular objects, people, states-of-mind and/or events; and the stronger and more numerous the emotions associated with a given value, the more committed the individual is to that value. Additionally, the learner must internalize these values to have them become instinctive responses (Paik, 1982). This process of internalization must be through active participation in activities that promote value clarification and, thus, the investigations into this realm is heightened further.

Lack of Self-Esteem

The evidence reinforces the precept that trust in the "self" is accompanied by feelings of worthiness and, therefore, the individual will be willing to trust in one's own ideas and the feelings generated from them. Conversely, the reaction of those with low self-esteem blocks the learning process and is most accentuated in lack of reading skill. Their deficiency produces failure, and as failure in specific tasks becomes patterns, and those patterns become histories, a profound impact on the developing personality characteristics occurs (Kifer, 1975; Quandt, 1973). The manifestation of this pattern is an individual who becomes self-defeating.

Such a condition is called "learned helplessness," the psychological term given to the behavior as observed in

research with animals. It was theorized that when uncontrollable factors prevail upon us as individuals, we generalize our own hypothesis, either consciously or unconsciously, that future events of a similar nature will also be uncontrollable and, therefore, such individuals will react with passivity. When the lack of control of events is attributable to personal causes, students consider it their personal failure. Behavioral psychologists find that children who demonstrate "learned helplessness" often seek to escape the blame for their situation, and this escapism exhibits itself as emotional damage with resultant behavioral and academic problems (Johnson, 1981; Coopersmith, 1967; Quandt, 1973).

Harris (1972) reports that 90% of the reading disability cases referred to clinics show some form of emotional disturbance. It seems as if an individual arrives at a crude ratio of his successes and failures and uses that ratio in estimating future chances of success. Of course, the student with low esteem estimates chances of success to be minimal and expects failure and rejection (Coopersmith, 1967). Thus, the mood of failure and rejection will color any future exposure to learning as was identified in Hettena and Ballif's research on the "Effects of Mood on Learning" (1981).

Paralleled to this is the feeling of achievement anxiety. Khan (1969) documented this condition and found it was represented in both males and females. The traditional approach toward teaching reading with its emphasis on mastery of isolated skills may contribute to this stress, according to Khan. If this is true, the new "back-to-basics" movement may compound the situation. Therefore, teachers need to be alert to ways of minimizing the effects of this anxiety.

Ideally, a pupil should be motivated by a basic desire to learn, with this drive occurring when reading is seen as a means of achieving desirable, personal goals (Schubert, 1973). If an individual does not see a personal need for competence in academic tasks, the belief that there is a capacity of performing said tasks will not be sufficient reason for soliciting good performance (Jordan, 1981). Instead, Mill points out in her report (1960) that learning will be facilitated when a pupil perceives a situation as a personally relevant problem, and sees a need to overcome it. As Schubert (1973) quotes a student, "Sure, this manual's got a lot of words I don't know, but that's not going to stop me. I've got to pass the driver's test."

The evidence in the literature confirms the relationship of attitude and achievement, but it additionally reiterates that since it cannot be directly observed it must be inferred from behavior. The implication of this for the classroom teacher is to establish positive attitudes that

can be translated into interest which will, in turn, produce a desire for learning, and thereby lead to success and achievement (Kennedy and Halinsky, 1975).

Studies of Positive Correlation

Healey (1973) set out to see if experimental versus traditional teaching methods would change children's attitudes toward reading. She examined 100 fifth-grade students in Miami Florida, over a three-year period. She divided the children into three groups after determining the children's attitude toward reading through questionnaires, observation, pupil response to printed matter displayed in the room, and their reaction to assignments which involved silent reading. The matched-pair statistical analysis showed significant gains for the reading group that participated in the development of their own reading program; while the group in which the children were rigidly grouped according to their ability proved to be the most resistant to a change in attitudes.

Jordan's work with black adolescents (1981) found that academic self-concept and need for academic competence attained statistical significance for both females and males. It showed statistical significance of academic self-concept as a significant predictor of academic achievement as ascertained through the administration of the Self-Concept of Ability (General) Scale.

Another report of significance between the affective domain and academic achievement consisted of a sample of 500 male and 529 female junior high school students (Khan, 1969). While the factor of attitude correlated significantly with achievement criteria for males but not for females, the achievement anxiety factor had significance for both sexes, and a lesser significance of the need-for-achievement factor was found in both groups. The composite findings indicated that affective predictors yielded higher correlations with such uniform criteria as standardized achievement tests.

The subjects in Zimmerman and Allebrand's research (1965) were 71 poor readers and 82 good readers from fourth- and fifth-grade classes in an urban school district in California. They were given TAT cards and it was discovered that the poor readers repeatedly gave negative descriptions of the situation cards. Since such tests are considered valid projective devices of personality traits, the negative comments would imply that poor readers have negative images of themselves and the way they function in their environment. Thematic Aperception Tests (TAT) are often used for this.

Additionally, 180 fifth- and sixth-grade students given self-esteem inventories showed a positive correlation with previously obtained achievement test results in a study by Primavera, Simon and Primavera (1975); while the contribution of personal effort--being the cause of success, and

thereby developing self-esteem--was found significant in a study by Johnson (1981), involving three groups of thirty, nine-to-twelve year olds. When Roettger (1980) correlated the comprehension subtest of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, she found that they fell in categories of: high attitude-high performance; high attitude-low performance; and low attitude-high performance. The high-attitude students were naturally expected to produce high performance, while all classroom teachers were aware that there are those students who do not perform to their potential (high attitude-low performance). The surprise in the study was the students who indicated a low attitude on the scale and yet exhibited high performance in reading. Most integral to our discussion is the reason that the majority of the low attitude-high performance group gave. They viewed reading as being important in some respect to their lives.

Measures of Self-Evaluation

A model of co-interrelationships to show that the presence of one condition might not lead to the presence of another was presented by Robinson (1975); and while educators should not presume that a certain response, attitude or achievement will be present because of an expressed opinion, an attitude scale is still the best indicator to project the potential of academic achievement (Coopersmith, 1967).

Outstanding differences between good and poor reactions to the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), wherein the responses consistently had negative values when relating the pictures to personal or school situation, were reported by Zimmerman and Allebrand (1975). Through the various procedures used in their study, Zimmerman and Allebrand concluded that the good reader is more apt to describe himself as possessing internalized drives which result in success through personal effort and persistence; whereas when poor readers express themselves honestly on an attitude instrument, negative expressions result. A two-year study of secondary students' attitudes toward reading was plotted by Kennedy and Halinski (1975). They developed a questionnaire that they administered to 977 students. The students assessed were in academic tracks and, as expected, those in the accelerated sections scored significantly higher, and those students considered to be remedial, scored lowest on the attitude scale. Although some students tended to exaggerate their positive attitude, this attitude scale utilized a technique of item correlation which established internal validity.

However, it is highly probable that many more students than have been identified have a low self-concept, since one of the problems of self-reporting measures is that such a student may try to hide, or modify, true feelings, consciously or unconsciously (Harris, 1972). If it is a conscious effort, then the individual is aware of his low

self-esteem and tries to conceal it from others; while, in the other instance, he tries unconsciously to conceal it even from himself (Coopersmith, 1967). Additionally, attitudes may be quantitatively the same while being qualitatively different, thus creating a problem in interpretation (Harris, 1972).

Since Chang's study (1976) found a significant relationship between teacher's rating of a child's self-concept and since self-perception is the most accurate predictor of academic achievement (Jones and Grieneeks, 1970), teachers should assess their students' attitudes and interests. Yet, no teachers in Heathington and Alexander's study (1984) could mention any attitude-assessing measure by name. However, those teachers who wish to capitalize on student interests will find interest- and attitude-measuring instruments valuable (Schubert, 1973; Heathington and Alexander, 1984), with many such tests available from publishing companies.

Implications for Teachers

As previously mentioned, value-clarification is important in producing a contributing member of the society, and the school as an educating force is essential for the development of this skill. Modeling behavior after an effective, assured and competent person is one of the avenues children have of establishing their value-clarification

(Coopersmith, 1967; Quandt, 1973; Roettger, 1980; Heathington and Alexander, 1984). The need for "significant others" as role models for a child's development of identity is also important for their development in reading (Brookover, 1966). While teachers were not listed in the classification of "significant others" in queries by Coopersmith (1967), they were reported as being such by both Quandt (1973) and Pines (1984). One group studied by Pines (1984) identified teacher or school activity as being the influence that allowed them to develop sufficient self-esteem to counter negative situations.

Another important factor in terms of implication for teachers is that of oral reading. Heathington and Alexander (1984) learned through a questionnaire of reading priorities given to 101 teachers, that reading orally to their classes ranked fourth. Yet, few teachers actually read to their students. Generally, reading to the class does occur frequently in kindergarten, but very rarely beyond third grade. Miller (1984) suggests that the attitude of teachers seems to be saying that students are too old to be read-to after third grade. Heathington and Alexander's questionnaire results (1984) seem to substantiate this notion. They discovered that teacher-modeling ranked merely eighth out of fourteen priority criteria. A dichotomy is found in the ranking of reading stories to students as fourth in

importance, yet not occurring in actual practice. Some clarification in teachers' minds as to what constitutes the educational purpose of oral reading in relationship to student learning would seem to be needed.

Since establishing a firm value structure fosters self-concept (Coopersmith, 1967; Greer, 1972; Paik, 1982), teachers need to employ means in reading to accomplish this end. Reading and, in particular, literature, is the ideal vehicle to develop meaningful values, since it promotes growth in sensitivity, self-identification and empathy, as well as providing the sheer delight of the printed/spoken word (Miller, 1984).

Therefore, concentration on the basal text to the exclusion of other forms of literature becomes a limiting factor in the growth of reading of a child and, ultimately, in academic achievement. Consequently, teachers must expose students to reading activities beyond the basal text if they hope to generate a positive attitude toward reading. Furthermore, students must be made to recognize how reading affects every aspect of their lives and how they can participate fully in the reading process (Fredericks, 1982; Lehr, 1982).

Coopersmith (1967) states that self-esteem is not an epiphenomenon but has specific antecedents, that they manifest themselves in behavioral actions. Kahn (1981) describes the actions of striving for achievement as motive dispositions lying latent in an individual waiting to be

aroused by situation cues. These cues indicate to the individual that the performance of that action will be instrumental to achievement. Thus, it is incumbent upon educators to provide experiences that will motivate and "waken" those latent responses in their students. Presumably, then, when a teacher provides approaches to reading that activate the affective domain (self-concept, feelings, emotions, values), the student has the greatest chance for academic success (Quandt, 1973; Coopersmith, 1967; Miller, 1984), because he has been given a motive to achieve.

In Heathington and Alexander's study (1984), when 101 teachers were asked to rate the priority in which they held various components in reading, they rated attitude above all other reading activities, except for comprehension. Yet, what teachers say about the importance of promoting attitudes in reading and what they do are not necessarily the same, as witness this comment from a student in Roettger's study on attitudes (1980). When asked what they felt would help children learn to read, students said: "The teacher should let students have time to read 'their own' books each day, even if they haven't completed all their work." (This after the teacher had encouraged students to bring their books for "freetime" reading.) Another comment, reported by Roettger, that shows teachers often foil their good intentions of promoting a positive attitude toward reading: "If you get your work done, you can read until it is time to go

to the reading group or to do something else." Such a statement of de-emphasis on personal reading builds the concept that it is not important. Significantly, teacher behavior was related to both student attitude and achievement scores in the results of a study by Lehr (1982). Furthermore, those who praised their students and sought out their ideas and questions had students who received higher academic achievement scores.

Therefore, taken in its totality, the need to re-examine the attitudes of both teachers and students to the learning and teaching of reading is of paramount importance.

Since students are continuously bombarded with influences that can negatively affect their academic progress, successful reading, which is a prime factor to scholastic achievement in all subject areas, must be obtained. The attainment of that skill has been shown to be positively correlated with a student's self-esteem, so teachers must create a reading program that will advance that goal.

Although such activities as have been mentioned are not a panacea for all of the reading problems a teacher encounters in the classroom, it is hoped that the meshing of reinforcing activities will develop the affective, as well as the cognitive, domain of a student's integral self. Thus, education will have fostered a child with a firm value system, leading to potential success in the future and, additionally, one who will have a personal and committed relationship with reading that will continue into adulthood.

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Parents Do Make a Difference

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Abstract

Parents are considered as one of the greatest factors relating to elementary children's reading achievement.

This paper attempts to focus on the tremendous importance of parents as co-educators in teaching reading to their children in the elementary grades.

Recent research on parental determinant factors relating to reading achievement are reviewed.

Also, different programs involving parents in teaching reading to their children are included.

Parents Do Make A Difference

In the past two decades in the United States and other countries, educators have become increasingly aware of the powerful effects of families on learning and have initiated a number of programs to give parents, particularly those in financial or social need, the materials and procedures that seem likely to promote the affective, behavioral and cognitive growth of their children. The importance of families to children's academic performance is well documented in numerous studies (Birch 1970, Bronfenbrenner 1974, Firowska 1978, Henderson 1968, Hess 1969, Jencks et al., 1972, Mckay et al., 1978, & Miller 1971) showing that a large number of children who fail in school are from disadvantaged families. High achievers were found to be from middle class families.

Graue et al., (1983) evaluated parent education programs and synthesized the results of the evaluation, since the psychological environment of the home was found to be associated with learning or classroom time-on-task. Graue states that although poverty and family size are not easily changed on a mass scale, the behavior of parents may be altered favorably if instructional materials are made available.

In addition, Walberg and Marjoribanks (1976) found that poverty and family size both predict less intellectual stimulation in the home environment thus resulting in lower levels of cognitive development. However their study suggests that specific and alterable behaviors of parents toward their children such as intellectual stimulation in the home are still more strongly predictive of cognitive development than are such variables as family socioeconomic status (SES) and size.

Also, many large-scale sociological and economic studies show weak and inconsistent associations of educational outcomes with school variables such as expenditures per student, school size and moderate association with student background variables such as socioeconomic status (SES) and family size (McDermott, 1976).

It has been found that the period of most rapid rate of growth of intelligence and achievement occurs during the first years of life when the family's influence is paramount. Influences on intelligence produce their greatest effects during those periods of most rapid rate of growth. Parental interaction with their children such as communication, trips to supermarkets, reading stories, etc., all influence children's intelligence (Bloom, 1964).

Family characteristics associated with academic achievement and intelligence can be divided into status variables and process variables. The status variables are those of socioeconomic status, for example: education, occupation, and income. These tell little about how their effects are mediated to the child. The process variables are achievement pressure of parents, home language models, academic home guidance, and social participation of the family. These are believed to be mediating variables according to Fotheringham and Creal (1980).

They report a highly significant association between ratings of family characteristics and academic achievement at grade three. The contribution of process variables is demonstrated separately from socioeconomic variables. In June 1971, a survey was conducted on grade three children (ages ranging from eight and a half to eleven years) in public and private (Catholic) schools in Welland, a southern Ontario

county. For 1,153 of the total 3,827 children in grade three, information was available on the Metropolitan Achievement Test (MAT), Canadian Cognitive Abilities Test, teacher rating of social maturity; nature of the school program (regular, remedial, special); family country of birth, language of the home, and socioeconomic data (parental occupation, education, and income); and health status of the child as determined by the school nurses. Of the 1,153 children with complete information, 971 had English as their principal language of the home and were without evident neurological impairment as reported by the school nurse.

These 971 children were divided into above average, average and below average achievement on the basis of the MAT reading and arithmetic scores using the following MAT standards; for above average, scores both in comprehension and arithmetic computation in the 76th to 95th percentile rank; for average, scores in the 25th to 75th percentile; and for below average, scores less than the 25th percentile. At random, thirty-five children were selected from each of these groups to constitute the three samples of this study. An additional qualification was that the children were Canadian born with both parents present in the home.

In a preliminary study on a sample of sixty-two grade two and three and eighty-three grade eight children with a wide range of academic achievement and types of class placements, Fotheringham and Creal (1980) used a measure of general family function, the Family Functioning Scales and Dave's scales of home educational process variables to rate home and emotional educational atmospheres.

As a result of this study, Fotheringham and Creal (1980) conclude that the socioeconomic status of the children with different levels of achievement varied greatly. The high achieving students had fathers

whose average years of schooling was thirteen excluding kindergarten years; the average achieving students' fathers had a mean of eleven years of schooling while the low achieving pupils' fathers had ten years. The mean number of years of school for a comparable age group of fathers in Ontario at the time of the study was about eleven. Though socioeconomic status variables relate to children's intelligence and achievement scores and eventual academic attainment, they provide little understanding of how the relationship is transmitted to the child, for example, by inheritance, material opportunities or home learning environment. Fotheringham and Creal (1980) conclude that the major influence on the differences in academic achievement among children is the family. They add that this influence appears to operate through initial levels of ability on entering school, which is, in part, inherited, and through attitudes toward education and opportunities provided for learning.

Efforts to improve the academic achievement of the lower end of the population distribution relative to the rest of the population are unlikely to produce much success if they operate through modifications of the existing school system or attempt to eliminate material poverty. Fotheringham and Creal (1980) state that it is not to say the present school system should not be modified or material poverty eliminated. Each are reasonable goals in themselves but will probably not significantly change the relative position of the lower achieving students.

In addition, if public education is to be a vehicle for eliminating the extent of achievement desparity, extensive and radical changes will probably be required. It is most important to look at what differences between the learning environment of the home versus the school account for the home's paramount influence. The home is an individual or small

group learning situation that provides contact with a few caring adu ts, whereas the school is a large group environment generally teaching to the mean of existing children by a changing series of adults whose styles, values, and levels of commitment vary. If these are crucial differences in relation to achievement, then modifications of public schooling would require techniques to produce more individualized instructions in an environment that mroe consistently transmits its styles and attitudes toward learning than presently exists. Any modifications are probably doomed to failure if they are unable to create in the student appropriate attitudes conducive to learning and achievement and with which the student will indentify (Fotheringham and Creal, 1980).

The growing recognition of the importance of academic stimulation of children by parents as both supplement and complement to the school environment has led educators, especially those in urban and economically depressed areas to experiment with a number of programs. Neidmeyer (1969) conducted a particularly successful and well-organized school-base parent instruction program to improve reading readiness skills of kindergarten students. The Parent-Assisted Learning Program (PAL) enabled interested parents to participate in an orientation session. They used PAL's programmed materials called practice exercises at home with their children.

The parents were given methods using reenforcement to improve motion, as well as very specific instructions about the length and frequency of practice exercises, which were to provide practice in the following objectives of the reading program; reading sight words, recognizing and pronouncing beginning and ending sounds, and sound blending. The parents used a script for each practice exercise which contained twenty items that required pupils to select or construct a response from a printed stimulus. In addition, inexpensive children's books were sent home from a printed

stimulus. In addition, inexpensive children's books were sent home approximately twice a week for parents to use as they wished. After twelve weeks of school and home instruction, an individually administered, fifty items posttest was given. The test was composed of randomly sampled ending and beginning sounds and blends that had been taught in the reading program at school. PAL students' scores, compared with those obtained by students whose parents had expressed an interest in participating in the program but were not included, were significantly higher (83% correct versus 55%). The same pattern occured when PAL students' scores were compared with those of 48 randomly selected students from six different kindergarten classes (83% versus 50%). Results of this study proved parents as inexpensive resources in facilitating reading readiness skills.

Williams (1979) suggests that home learning environment may be broken down into process variables: opportunities and stimuli that parents provide for the child to interact with a wide range of situations; reenforcements given for appropriate performance; and expectations that parents have for the child's performance.

Various studies cite the proportion of the variance of academic achievement scores accounted for by socioeconomic variables can be significantly raised by the addition of such family process variables.

Another study done by Nicassio (1983) reported similar findings of relationship between home environment and child performance variables. Dyads of school-aged children and their parents were divided into three mutually exclusive achievement groups and observed while completing an instructional task introduced into the home by the child's school.

Verbalizations were coded into speech acts and trends were identified. Analyses indicated: differential use of speech acts by parents

and children performance rates and task outcomes across achievement levels. A relationship between achievement and socioeconomic status was cited. Also, a relationship between language and task performance was indicated.

Although home-based remedial intervention programs that use parents as tutors of their own children have expanded beyond pre-school origins (Nicassio, 1979), there appear to be no published accounts describing the process and results of home isntruction by the parents of school-aged children.

Nicassio's study (1983) sought to explore the nature of instructional episodes in the home by attempting to: 1) identify patterns of language use by parent-child dyads that engaged in a teaching and learning task introduced into the home by the child's school; 2) determine whether or not parental language use would vary across children's school achievement; 3) determine if a relationship existed between children's school achievement and dyad task performance; and 4) determine if a relationship existed between dyad task performance and the use of language as an instructional tool.

The results of Nicassio's study revealed dyad members of higher achieving groups seemed more fluid in their ability to anticipate each others' actions and thoughts. Some dyads lacked experience in conceptualizing together as a problem solving team. Numerical count of the transcripts for verbalizations that could serve as markers of joint awareness and joint activity favored the highest achieving group. This implies that for some dyads, parent-child attention may be synchronized by concepts that are based on shared experience. Through shared experience and mutual response, parent and child may select verbal interaction patterns that enables them to function more effectively as problem solving teams.

Nicassio, concluded that parents of low achievers inhibited thought and action while parents of high achievers facilitated such qualities in their children. Variations existed within each achievement groups, and parents of each type were identified within all three groups. Nicassio (1983) further stated that it is methodologically difficult to establish how much of an instructional episode is shaped by the parent and how much by the child. A decade ago Mishler (1972) contended that much work remained to be done before it would be possible to disentangle instructional discourse and link variations in adult verbal behavior to children's learning and cognitive development. Nonetheless, Nicassio (1983) believes Mishler's contention to remain valid.

Still another noted study of parental effect on cognitive achievement is one of father involvement. The involvement of fathers in the American family has been largely restricted to the role of the "hidden coach" who provides money, suggestions and sometimes moral support to "mom" and the children and often from his wife, the American father has missed many benefits now emerging from the research on effective fathering (Lamb & Bronson, 1980).

Cryan (1983) suggests ways fathers can effect academic achievement. He describes the "father role: during the birthing process, the infant years, the pre-school years, kindergarten-primary, elementary and middle school years.

Some suggestions for fathers during the child's elementary and middle years are: 1) work with parent and community involvement programs. The presence of a warm accepting involved father as class assistant or class father allows children to see the role of masculinity in a new light; and 2) be supportive and accepting of your child's questions and concern over changing sex roles. Cryans study includes literature on

fathering and also provides evidence that fathers, acting in nurturing and caretaking roles, have both the necessary desire and competence to succeed with children. Research literature included in Cryan's study substantiate the importance of the father's role in sex-role identity, social development and adjustment, academic achievement and moral development.

Cryan further concludes that educators and community leaders must recognize that fathers serving on a voluntary basis can be as influential in the classroom and community as research has shown them to be in the home.

Another study of parental involvement in the reading process is one of Shuck's (1983) with third and fifth grade remedial readers. Parents were asked to help their children read a book, do homework assigned by the lab, work on a word list from the lab, or play games from the lab. Results of the study indicate the children in the parent tutoring program had significantly higher reading achievement scores than did the control group. Such results go a long way in emphasizing the value of parental involvement. Evidently children sense the importance their parents place on school activities and strive to improve their school work (Shuck, Ulsh & Platt, 1983). Other similar parental programs resulting in reading achievement may be found in current literature. Breiling (1976) began a parent project which gave parents a sense of potential importance of the role they play with their children and which gave parents specific materials and ideas for helping their children read at home. The results of this project showed the majority of children gained in reading achievement.

Quesinberry, Blakemore, and Warren (1977) wrote an annotated bibliography of three dozen helpful articles giving ideas and specific

plans for developing parent involvement programs in reading.

Another parent involvement reading project, Parents Encourage Pupils (PEP) proved that when parents provide extra reading instruction at home their children's reading performance improves. Parents were asked to help their children read a book, do homework assigned by the lab, work on a word list from the lab, or play games from the lab. Parents donated prizes for their children to exchange points earned for completing home assignments. Children in the parent tutoring program had significantly higher reading achievement scores than did children whose parents were not involved in the tutorial program (Shuck et al., 1983).

Survival Reading for Parents and Kids is also an education program for parents of primary grade students. These parents attended workshops constructing games designed to reenforce their child's survival reading skills, parents made and used traffic signs, menus and cereal boxes to teach words from the "real world" (Cassidy & Vukelich, 1978).

The Preschool Readiness Outreach Program (PROP) used two formats: weekly workshops and monthly pamphlets.

PROP's primary purpose sought to assist parents of three to five years olds and teach beginning reading skills to their children. At each workshop, the parents constructed an educational game which developed each basic skill to beginning reading: oral expression, visual perception, auditory discrimination, etc. Nien monthly pamphlets (sent to parents) suggested ways to use readily available activities to stimulate beginning reading and language skills: cooking, neighborhood field trips; trips to the beach or woods; getting dressed; doing the laundry; preparing, eating, and cleaning up after dinner. Parents, and teachers commented how successful the program was for developing these skills (Vukelich, 1978).

On Guam, a number of programs have included parents. The FLASH Programs (Duenas, 1975) involved parents as home teachers for primary children. The parents received activities and materials from a home visitor who works closely with the child's teacher. The project reported considerable interest in the part of parents. However, no data are available. The Distar Project (Peryon & Ryan, 1975) and the Chamorro Language and Culture Project (Gould, 1975) both very large projects involving eleven schools on Guam, also involved parents. Their chief function was to be involved with parent advisory councils in their respective projects, mostly a vehicle for keeping parents informed and getting suggestions from them. No data were provided because the effect of parents was not studied directly. Parents did actively participate in numerous school functions during the projects.

Results from these studies indicate that although the student population of reading difficulties are of low-socioeconomic background, parental programs involving parents in the educational process do greatly affect the elementary pupils' reading achievement. Parents do make a difference.

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The Identification of a Dyslexic with some Contributing Factors of the Cause

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Abstract

Conventional methods of classroom teaching and training offer little help to dyslexic students. Alternative approaches must be specially designed for them. Traditionally, a great deal of significance has been assigned to reversals in reading and writing. These errors are commonly attributed to perceptual difficulties that reflect neurological impairments in the brain's left and right hemisphere, as well as the brain itself. This paper reviews studies purported to identify and seek common causes of dyslexia. Educators continue to strive for new methods of treatment for dyslexia through extensive analyses and innovations. Much is yet to be learned regarding dyslexia and reading disabilities.

Dyslexia is a disorder in children who, despite conventional classroom experience, fail to attain language skills of reading, writing, and spelling commensurate with their intellectual abilities. Educationally, the term is often applied to a child of normal intelligence who is two or more years behind his expected grade level in reading. A family history of language disorders is common, and boys are affected more often than are girls.

Neurologists believe that within the illiterate population, there exists a hard core of specific cases which are neither psychologically determined nor yet an aspect of mental retardation. The victims, if recognized early and treated properly, can be rescued from the limbo of illiteracy. It is believed by some, that they can be taught to read with fair efficiency.

Dyslexic children are usually of normal or higher intelligence. Their inability to read is inconsistent with their achievement in other school subjects, such as arithmetic. Spelling ability may or may not be impaired. Sensory deficits and neurologic impairment are absent. The child may be left-handed, or ambidextrous, or dominance may be mixed. Confusion in orientation of letters is the prime characteristic. This is manifested by reading from right to left, failure to see and sometime hear similarities or differences in letters or words, or inability to work out the pronunciation of familiar words. Symptons of frustration are inevitable. The reading disability and its affects on learning and school performances may lead to behavioral problems, delinquency, aggression, withdrawal, and alien-

ation from other children, parents and teachers.

Before dyslexia is diagnosed, the child with a reading problem must have a thorough optholmological, auditory, psychological and hard neurological examinations to verify that his poor reading is not due to some other disorder.

Although, there is little agreement in either the research literature or experimental field about the diagnosis, and treatment of dyslexia, descriptions of these children, generally include their tendencies to reverse letters and words. Why have reversals assumed importance to reading teachers? Many teachers think that a child's reversing a letter or word means that he or she in fact sees it that way: reversed. A child actually seeing portions of the world backwards obviously could be expected to have a good deal of trouble reading. Children who reverse words and letters tend to reverse the same letters and words consistently, from child to child within a child's own vocabulary. According to Jordan (1973), the letters classically reversed by children said to be dyslexic are p and q, b and d, u and n; the words are was and saw, no and on, pot and top, of and for, stop and spot. But there is something interesting about these letters and words; they are not randomly chosen. They make sense when reversed. Was become saw, saw become was, b becomes d, u becomes n.

Harmon (1982) says these dyslexic children are not suffering from neurological impairment, such as minimal brain dysfunction; neither are they learning disabled. Nor are they in fact, reversing letters or words. They are instead, doing something much less

pathological and much more interesting. They are simply confusing two similiar graphic displays. These displays are in fact identical or almost, except for the arbitrary convention that says they must read from left to right.

What is to be done about children who reverse letters and words? Harman (1982) reports what should be done about dyslexic children: First you should begin working with the child be testing his knowledge of letters. It is believed according to Harman, that children do need to know letters before they learn words, which is why the remediation starts with this task. Next, do not let the child work with whole words until he has mastered individual letters. Third, do not let the child work with a book or story until he has mastered the individual words in that story. Finally, do not let the child move on in a sentence until he has correctly read every word. Harman (1982) gives a more sensible approach in a much more positive view. This strategy is most useful when the word in print is so unusual that we can safely assume the child has never or rarely seen it. The next and ideal strategy, according to Harman is to let the child read to the end of the sentence. This is an ideal strategy because if frees the child from dependence on an adult. The last strategy differs from the second in that the second relies primarily on the child's ability to make sense of the printed words, that is, on semantics, while this last strategy relies primarily on the child's linguistic ability.

Dyslexia and its effects have been recognized for years. Some

possible causes lie in the neuroligical, social and educational factors which have been implicated but none received strong or consistent support until now. One long-standing hypothesis originally by, Orton, in 1937, implicates abnormal cerebral dominance or functional asymmetry of the brain's hemispheres. With recent explosion of research on left-right hemispheres processes, it has become possible to test this hypothesis. Sandra Witelson (1977) of McMaster University in Hamilton, Ontario, reports that dyslexia may be associated with representation of spatial data in both hemispheres; instead of primarily in the right as is the usual case.

Witelson based her findings on studies of 85 right handed boys, 6 to 14 years of age (the condition is most often seen in males), who were administered tests, using electroencephalographic and tomographic procedures commonly used to determine hemispheric specialization. The results were compared with those of 156 control subjects. Evidence for bilateral representation of spatial function differentiates between dyslexic children and non-dyslexic children. Dual representation of a cognitive process such as spatial perception could says Witelson, "affect cognition by overloading one hemisphere (the left in this case) and interferring with those functions 'native' to it." The functions native to the left hemisphere include sequential and linguistic processing. Interference with such processes should lead to poor performance in linguistic tasks and reading.

The theory that is still commonly accepted in explaining dyslexia was developed some 50 years ago by Dr. Samuel Torrey Orton, while screening mental health problems. Orton (1925) became interested in

children who not only repeately reversed letters or words, but had a talent for "mirror writing." Some of them could actually write better from right to left, with letters oriented backward and in reverse order, so that a mirror held along side would show the words as they are normally written. Orton (1925) a neurologist, reasoned that while each half of the brain controls various natural activities, only one side becomes dominant in the use of language. If, in learning the artificial skill of recognizing symbols and translating them into words, both hemispheres persisted in taking part, they might somehow compete and interfere with each other, leading to reversed perception. Orton concluded that this is attributed to confused or mised dominance of the brain's hemispheres. When neither hemisphere was dominant, the two conflicting mirror images created a perceptual confusion. Reversal errors, therefore were indicative of perceptual disturbance caused by a neurological malfunction.

In the neurological aspect of dyslexia, there are three types of sensations which are sensed by special organs. These three types are the visual, auditory, and cutaneous functions. Information from these organs is conveyed to specific areas of the cerebral cortex, where they are displayed almost as a map or image of the percieved object. Sensations coming from the body are projected to the central region of the cortex, with the foot being represented near the vortex and the face and hands being located at the lower margin and adjacent to the temporal lobe.

Dyslexia has puzzled researchers for nearly a century. It's

causes have sometimes been attributed to psychological factors. However, in recent years, studies have suggested possible problems in the brain, primarily involving abnormal functioning of the hemispheres.

Cytoarchitectonic studies of dyslexic brains indicates that dyslexics do not efficiently use the regions of the brain known to be important in reading.

Drake (1968) provided the first autopsy report. He found an abnormal convolutional pattern in the parietal lobe of the brain. The mass of fibers connecting the two hemispheres was thin, and many neurons were misplaced and abnormal in shape. Eleven years later, Galaburda and Kemper (1979) provided the most in depth autopsy report and used this observation technique called cytoarchitectonics, to examine the "architecture of the cortex," in detail. They reported that, unlike the majority of people who have a large left temporal region, their patient apparently lacked this asymmetry in brain development. Gross and microscopic examination, revealed abnormalities only in the left hemisphere. Microscopic abnormalities were identified primarily in the left parietal and temporal regions. Galaburda and Kemper (1979) also documented architectonic cortical abnormalities in the left hemisphere of a 14 year old boy with a positive family history of dyslexia.

The important point to glean from these studies is that these abnormalities are not due to brain damage but abnormal brain development (Galaburda, Sherman & Geschwind, in press).

A study contradicting the GAlaburda report, was conducted by

Levinson (1983). He claims that the cause of dyslexia lies not in the cortex, but in the cerebellum and inner ear, which together form the body's balance and coordination system. This system is responsible for stabilizing the information the brain receives from the environment. This system is also responsible for controlling motion signals and eye tracking abilities sent by the brain to the body. Any impairment to its functioning will result in scrambled input resulting in dizziness. Using an instrument called a 3-D optical Scanner, which measures eye-tracking capacity, Levinson (1983) screened one thousand children in New York City Schools. He found that about one in five had some degree in impairment in the function of the cerebellum and inner ear. Usually, without special instruments, only the severest cases are recognized. But even mild cases can cause learning difficulties, some of which lead to depression and behavorial problems.

Regardless of the cause, the significance of early diagnosis should be clearly emphasized. Schiffman (1966) studied 10,000 children whom he found, that when diagnosis of dyslexia is made within the first two grades of school, nearly 82% of dyslexic children can be brought back to normal grade classwork. When diagnosis is not until the third grade, salvage drops to 46%. By the fourth grade, it is down to 42%. If these children are not diagnosed by the fifth, sixth or seventh grades, regardless of the teacher or technique used, only 10% or 15% can be brough to a normal grade level.

In summary, dyslexia may be attributed to a neurological impairment in the brain's hemispheres. Other studies take a position contradicting this point taken, believing the cause lies in malfunction of the cerebellum-inner ear system. Studies on treatment are not consistent either. There is evidence however, that regardless of cause, the important factor is early diagnosis.

No two persons are alike in their neurological capacities. They all have varying degrees of ability that they are not aware of. Some have poor depth perception or an inferior sense of direction or below average coordination. Their abilities to perceive colors or sounds or rhythm may be less sharp than other. There are many variabilities in mental capacity, each varying from total incapacity to simple slowness to learn.

The dyslexic child is no different from the rest. However, in his case, his impairments can be very delibitaing, for they make it difficult for him to learn to read and write. Since the entire educational system, with one or two exceptions is geared to learning by reading, the system is still searching for ways to remediate the dyslexic child. A great deal of research still needs to be done.

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